

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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Young Russia in Czecho-Slovakia

BY PROFESSOR LUCY E. TEXTOR, VASSAR COLLEGE

EDITOR'S NOTE.—The writer of this article is associate professor of history at Vassar College and is away on leave of absence to study the partition of the great estates in Czecho-Slovakia and Roumania. She has long been a student and a teacher of Slav history. During the summers of 1909 and 1911 she made a study of the land questions in Russia and in 1920 she travelled extensively in south-eastern Europe to acquaint herself with general conditions there. She has been in Czecho-Slovakia since July, 1922, and has received the hearty support of the Czech government in her work.

About six hours' journey to the south and east of Prague in a charming little Moravian town there is a school for Russian boys and girls which must challenge the admiration of the world. This school began in Constantinople in December, 1920, when a few consecrated men and women, chief among them Mme. Adelaide Jécouline, gathered together the children of the refugees who had crowded into the city after the defeat of Denikin in the spring of 1920 and of Wrangel in the fall of that same year. Mme. Jécouline had been a prominent educator in Russia for two decades. Her large co-educational school in Kiev—she is a great believer in bringing up girls and boys together—continues to flourish to this day under the direction of her staff of teachers, though she herself was obliged to flee from the Bolsheviks.

It is a pleasure to recall that American money helped to finance her philanthropic undertaking on the Bosphorus. A house was provided through the efforts of Mr. Thomas Whittemore, head of the Committee for the Relief of Russian Children, and food and clothing came for the most part from the American Red Cross. The little waifs were gathered in to the number of nearly four hundred, poor, neglected, underfed infants of six years and over, and they were cared for physically and educated in a systematic way. The city was, however, fearfully overcrowded as all the world knows, and it was thought desirable that as many as possible of the refugees should be sent elsewhere. Gifts to charitable institutions were, therefore, discouraged in order that the refugees might be forced to seek another home.

These were the circumstances that sent Madame Jécouline out upon her long quest which ended in Prague, where the Minister of Foreign Affairs listened sympathetically to her appeal and promised to provide a home for her school. Perhaps he had already in mind Moravska Trebova. At any rate

this was the place designated by the Czech government. Thirty-three so-called barracks had been erected there some years before for the Czech refugees from Galicia, but had never been used for that purpose. During two summers they had served as a vacation home for poor children sent by Dr. Alice Masaryk and once, for a short time, had harbored soldiers. They were new, clean, attractive buildings with an excellent water supply and electric lighting and beautifully situated in the open country about half a mile from the village.

The place having been chosen, the matter of transportation had next to be settled. The Czech government was unwilling to bear this expense and it was finally arranged that it should advance the money and should be reimbursed by the League of Nations at some future time. Just when that will be nobody seems to know. The first proposal was to send the children to Trieste by water, but no ship could be secured. The problem was finally solved by attaching an extra car for the sole use of the school to certain trains leaving Constantinople. These cars were switched whenever necessary and were en route to Trebova anywhere from seven to ten days. There was weariness and discomfort untold for the passengers, but that was really only the beginning of their time of trial. They left a mild, sunny climate and came to a cold country where the snow lay deep on the ground. They had no warm clothing and the buildings were inadequately heated. Many fell ill with influenza. An epidemic of measles and scarlet fever set in and five cases of spinal meningitis appeared. Of course, the whole school had to be quarantined. The days were long and empty for lessons had not yet begun, there being no equipment of any kind. Everything belonging to the school in Constantinople had been sent by sea to Trieste and was extremely slow in arriving. After two months, however, things began to brighten. Only one of the children died, the rest were nursed back to health. Classes were organized and each day had a definite schedule for work and play.

The Czech government is proving itself a generous host. It pays all expenses. There are more than thirty Russian professors. It is true that they receive only about half as much salary as their colleagues in Prague, but living in Moravska Trebova is cheap. An unmarried teacher is given 800 crowns and pays back 300 crowns to the school for room and board. A married man gets more because he has a

family to support. The government provides whatever equipment is absolutely necessary and cannot be obtained elsewhere, such as textbooks and apparatus for the laboratories; it provides food, a limited supply of clothing, and such service as is needed in addition to the teaching force.

The pupils live in dormitories grouped according to age and grade. There are about twenty-five beds in each room and four rooms in each building for the boys, three rooms and a large study in each building for the girls. Order reigns everywhere. Every coat is hung upon its hook, every towel neatly folded and laid at the foot of the bed of its owner. Each dormitory has a master or mistress who is the friend, confidant and companion of all the inmates and who usually lives on the floor above. Married masters ordinarily have two large rooms. If they have children over six years of age these live with the other pupils. There are no washing accommodations in any of the dormitories, but there is a building rather centrally located where there are bowls with hot and cold running water and shower baths. It is a unique sight of a morning to see the boys and girls on their way to the wash rooms, each armed with a towel, soap, tooth brush and paste.

All the cooking is done in two kitchens. Each is connected with a large dining room furnished with wooden tables and benches. The rooms are never filled and several sittings are necessary for each meal, because the supply of dishes is inadequate. The pupils take turns in serving, all the food being passed to them over the counter, so to speak, from the kitchen. It's a touching sight to see the children file in two by two and sing a resonant and truly Russian grace before they sit down. This occurs four times a day, for there is afternoon tea. It seemed rather curious to me to see six-year-olds partake of it, but it was so freshly made and so weak and sweet that I feel sure it had none but comforting qualities. In the middle of the morning, slices of bread and jam are carried to the class room. This little ceremony is omitted on Sundays and holidays. The food is simple, abundant and wholesome. There is no butter, but fat meats and gravies make good this lack. The masters who are married take their meals in their own homes, but the food comes from the kitchens. Thus the entire population of this little Russian town fares exactly the same.

I was greatly impressed with the personnel of the faculty, extraordinarily fine men and women and able teachers. They have planned a course of study which equips the graduate of the school for the university. Great stress is laid upon the languages. Every student must study Latin and two of the three languages, English, French and German. Czech is compulsory at the request of the government and is begun in the second grade. Mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, history, geography and literature all receive due emphasis. There is a good deal of experimental work in the laboratories. I saw a bit of electrical apparatus made by a student that would do credit to an expert. It should be said that in order that every boy may be provided with a trade, by

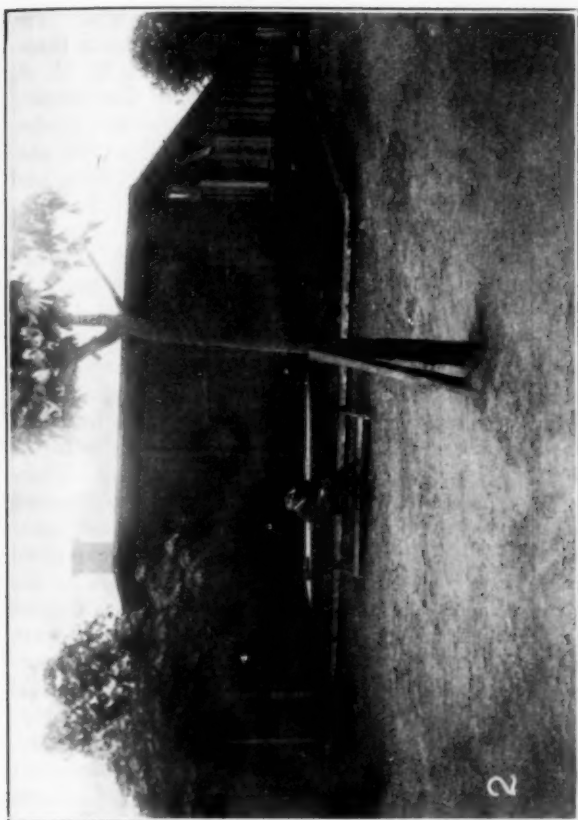
means of which he can earn a livelihood in an emergency, he is required to learn carpentry or shoe-making.

There were, in August, 1922, four hundred and twenty boys and about one hundred and forty girls in this school. They are from six to twenty-three years old, though nineteen is supposed to be the age limit. Some served as officers in Wrangel's army. Many have parents who live somewhere in south-eastern Europe but are unable to support them. Only about thirty are orphans. Most of the older pupils have passed through terrible experiences. One boy, for instance, saw his father shot before his eyes and only escaped being shot himself by feigning to be dead. Two of the girls lost their father and two uncles the same night at the hands of the Machno, those frightful bands of outlaws that infest some parts of Russia, and were themselves saved from a worse fate by being hidden away for three days. All of the little pupils have endured great privations. One child who arrived while I was there shouted with glee at the thought of sleeping in a bed. The older pupils are very tender with the little ones and there is a fine spirit of friendliness and comradeship throughout the entire school. Those of humble parentage and those of noble blood think of one another as equals. Misfortune has leveled all barriers. The social life is simple, natural and wholesome. There are several club rooms decorated and furnished by the students themselves, where they meet to sing, play games, dance, and act charades. There is also a theatre in which artistic ability finds free scope in acting, painting scenery and making costumes. The chorus of a hundred voices is really quite fine. One of the singers certainly has a future ahead of him. He is being trained by a master who was once a member of the Petrograd Opera Company. Outdoor sports furnish another opportunity for social intercourse. There is tennis despite the dearth of racquets; there is football played quite differently from our own game, each individual being bent on kicking the ball toward his goal. There is, by the way, only one reputable ball for official games, the rest being little more than bundles of rags. In winter there is tobogganing down two long gently sloping roads and all around are beautiful walks over the hills and through the woods.

The school lives by the bell; rises, goes to meals and to classes at the stroke of the gong. This last week of August, however, hours are not being strictly kept by those in the highest grade because they are taking the entrance examinations to the university. It is a matter of utmost importance to them that they should pass, otherwise, the Czech government will not enter them upon the list of those whose expenses it will pay. One hundred and forty students at Trebova are taking these examinations. There is a stir of excitement in the air. It is necessary for each one to decide what institution he wishes to attend. The professors give advice, of course, they know what subjects are best taught at Prague, what departments are overcrowded and so on. But there are other considerations. "We four girls want to go together,"



1. Building in which the school now at Trebova was housed when in Constantinople.



2. One of the four barracks at Strastnice. 5 rooms in every house. 16 beds in each.



3. Christmas, 1921, Charade. Student on left is selling goods in Constantinople. Student on right is studying in Prague. Russia lies prone in the middle and is being raised by Czechoslovakia.



4. Hudobice. Bed room and study.

said a little group to me one evening, "and we've chosen Brno because the best boys are going there and they know." "I want a course in mining engineering, so I'm going to Příbram," was the quiet choice of a fine young fellow,—this brings me to the next chapter of my story.

There are about 2000 Russian students studying in the universities of Czecho-Slovakia; 1700 at Prague, 250 at Brno, a very few at Bratislava and about 50 in the mining and engineering school at Příbram. Approximately 200 are women. These students are supported by the Czech government, which provides each one with tuition and lodging, 300 crowns a month for food and about 125 crowns for other expenses. Before being accepted by the university each student must produce evidence that he has had the necessary preliminary training. Curious as it may seem, many were able to present certificates showing what institutions they had attended and what subjects they had studied in Russia, soiled and worn, but precious documents which they had carried around with them in camp, on the battle field, as refugees and wanderers. Many of these students are the wreckage of the armies of Kolchak, Denikin and Wrangel. Most of them have come to Czecho-Slovakia by way of Constantinople. They range all the way from eighteen to forty-three years of age, but by far the greatest number are between twenty-four and thirty. The examination of these students testing their fitness for university work has been entrusted by the Czech government to about sixty Russian professors. They also arrange supplementary courses in the universities especially designed for the Russian students. At Prague there is a new department of law, all the lectures being given by Russian professors who receive exactly the same salary as their Czech colleagues.

There are thirteen faculties in the University of Prague,—mathematics, chemistry, philosophy, and so on. All the students studying at one faculty are organized. It is the business of such organizations, among other things to provide books or in some other way to make the dissemination of knowledge possible. For instance, the lectures of the professors are printed by the students themselves and bound into neat little pamphlets. During examination time the

printing press was kept going day and night. The press, by the way, was bought by the students themselves; the paper is furnished by the Y. M. C. A.

The students in Prague live in three dormitories. By far the best of these is that known as the Svobodarna. It is a very large model dwelling on the outskirts of the city in the suburb known as Liben, and was originally built for Czech workmen. Four of the five floors have now been given over to Russian students. The building is of cement and has two great wings each surrounding a court with pleasant balconies and gay flower boxes on the second floor. The walls are of plaster, the floors are made of tiles and the stairways of gray stone. Each room is about nine by six and one-half feet, and has a large window looking out upon the street or court. The partition walls of plaster are thick, but do not go quite to the ceiling. This makes for better ventilation. There are some larger rooms which are rented to Russian professors. Twenty-six students occupy the only dormitory, each having a cot with a mattress filled with shavings, a chair and a table. These are on the waiting list for single rooms. The building is lighted by electricity, the plumbing is adequate, the wash rooms are large and airy and supply hot water twice a week, the well equipped laundry is at the disposal of anyone who wishes to use it. There is a dining-room on the first floor which seats about two hundred. Dinner, consisting of soup, meat and vegetables, costs six crowns. There is a large room with a platform at one end for social gatherings, lectures, concerts and plays. Best of all is the reading room with Russian, Czech, English, French, German and Italian daily papers; two or three copies of each. The *London Illustrated News*, *The Graphic*, *The Literary Digest*, *The National Geographic Magazine* and *L'illustration* are also to be found there. This room was furnished by the Methodist Mission and that body also supplies writing paper in abundance. Chess, lotto, dominoes and other games may be obtained at the desk. Sixty or seventy of the four hundred students who live in this building are women. The community governs itself. Each corridor elects a kind of proctor every month or oftener if it chooses. The entire house elects a president, a vice president and a committee to enforce the rules. Those who trespass against



9. Barrack room in Strastnice.



10. Hudobice. Students get their own food and take it to dining room.



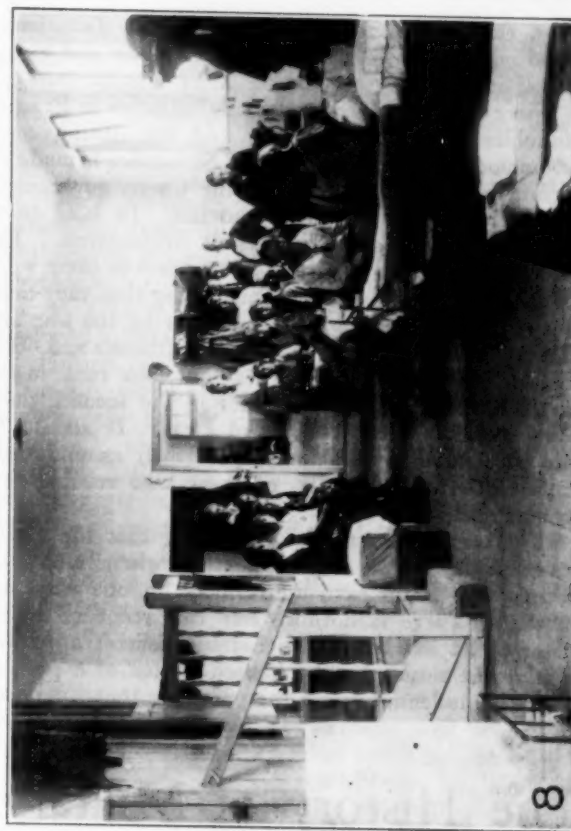
5. Inside court of Svobodarna.



6. Trebova. Physical exercise in front of the main schoolhouse.



7. Trebova. The recreation room.



8. Trebova. Dormitory.

these rules, who, for instance, create a disturbance or do not live up to the standard of order and cleanliness, are tried by a court.

There are two other student dormitories in Prague. Hudobice is an old building and the dining room accommodations are inadequate. Strastnice is made up of four new barracks built by the Czech government especially for the Russian students. In both these the students are organized as at Svobodarna. The record achieved by the Russian students in their work is almost unbelievably high considering that they must quite have lost the habit of study during the war and they are now hampered by lack of textbooks and other equipment. Last June, 75 per cent took rank in the first class and all the remainder in the second, there being none at all in the third class. It should be said that students who do not pass their examinations are stricken from the list of those who receive government help.

It is certainly a remarkable thing that the Czech government should be supporting alien men and women who could earn a livelihood in one way and another. There is nothing like this recorded in all history. It has been said that the nearest approach to it is the return by the United States of a part of the Boxer indemnity with the provision that it be used

in educating Chinese students. But that seems to me hardly a parallel case. The United States returned this money because it was left over after all claims had been satisfied. The Czech government is educating these students out of its own pocket. It may be said that there were 30,000 Czechs in Russia before the war, that there are still a good many there, that the Czechs have always felt much drawn toward the Russians. Even so, the generosity of the Czech government stands out as unique. One tenth of what it has done for the Russians has not been told in these pages. In proportion to the number of its people and its wealth it has outstripped every other country in the world in its gifts to this unfortunate people. Let us recognize it while the deed is in full flower. It was done without a thought of return, but lo! the return is already here. These Russian students are an incentive and an inspiration to all who come in contact with them. Their courage, their acceptance of what has been, their cheerful acquiescence in what must be, their determination to educate themselves, even at the cost of privations, make them spiritual health centers wherever they are. Young Russia is paying its debts and the coin it uses is the best in the world.

The History of Military Conscription with Especial Reference to the United States¹

BY FREDERICK MORSE CUTLER, PH. D., PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF PORTO RICO.

I. INTRODUCTORY CONSIDERATIONS.

When James A. H. Murray defined "conscription" as the "enrollment by lot of fixed numbers of those liable to service, with the option given of procuring a substitute," he expressed a popular misconception of the theme; his definition covered one phase of the subject, the variety of conscription known in the United States as "the draft," but it failed to include the more efficient army system in vogue amongst the Prussians, the system now known in America as "the selective service," and it ignored the basic, and vastly older, form of conscription which is connoted by the word "militia."

Of fundamental importance in a discussion of military conscription is the question of exemption and substitution; did some of the conscripts escape service by the payment of money? Whenever payment was accepted in lieu of service, the system was at once transformed into a mere method of taxation, wherein delinquents were penalized by being compelled to serve personally; the premium upon the possession of wealth and the penalty of poverty were the emphatic points. If no exemption or substitution was per-

mitted, the conscription was productive of soldiers rather than of revenue; but another question was raised: How was the state to provide for the necessities of industrial life when it forcibly removed many workers from their customary fields of activity? It is about the two foci of paid exemption or substitution, and of provision for industry, that a discussion of "conscription" must be constructed. A correct definition of "conscription" would be "the compulsory enlistment of men for military and naval service"—with the elision of Murray's last phrase.

II. THE MILITIA SYSTEM.

Oldest of all forms of military conscription was the militia system. When Herbert Spencer asserted that, in primitive society, the army was the nation mobilized and the nation was merely the quiescent army, his reference was to the militia. Other terms by which such conscription has been described are the *arrière-ban*, the levy-in-mass, and the *posse comitatus*. The militia was always characterized by its compulsory character, was a form of conscription, and it had its origins far back in the preliterate period of the early neolithic.

As the city-state became democratic, it made its military organization a framework within which to set up its electoral and legislative machinery; when citizens assembled to vote, they presented themselves

¹ This paper is a condensation of a more elaborate study of the same title, with exhaustive references, deposited in the Library of Clark University, and there available for circulation.

in military formation, and often under arms. This primitive association of political with militia activities seemingly exercised significant influence upon United States military history, a popular vote of the soldiers sometimes possessing authority transcending that of the officers' commands.

Although the American Constitution provided two methods by which Congress might utilize the potential military strength of the nation,—by means of the "militia," or by "raising and supporting armies,"—as a matter of fact, the militia alone was, until 1917, regarded as the "bulwark of national defense"; and the militia was a state, not a national, force. In 1792 the first militia law was enacted. In 1794 Congress "detached" 80,000 state militia for possible duty against France; and later in the same year, such troops were actually put into the field to suppress the "whiskey rebellion."

Between 1815 and 1846, the years of Jacksonian democracy, militia service was everywhere allowed to become voluntary; the law of the United States was tacitly annulled by the states. Volunteer companies, such as had appeared at intervals throughout the previous history of the world, at once sprang up in large numbers as substitutes for the older force. Although there was no inherent reason why volunteers should not have been quasi-regulars under complete federal control, as a matter of fact, Congress decreed that they should be regarded as militia and organized under the militia clause of the Constitution; the force was thus handicapped with the limitations which interfere with militia efficiency.

An ostensible restoration of the compulsory feature to the militia system was accomplished by the federal law of 1862; but the states continued filling their quotas by bounty—stimulated volunteering and disregarded the true intent of the legislation. When the original militia law was finally revised in 1903, the only actual militia were the "volunteer militia," who existed under the name of "national guard"; making a virtue of necessity, Congress accorded full recognition to the latter force.

It was a militia whose service was compulsory, which achieved many of history's most notable military triumphs. Marathon and Thermopylae were militia victories; Hannibal was vanquished by Roman militia; Cromwell's "trainband" militia turned the scale of battle at Worcester; in American history the Swamp Fight of 1675, the capture of Louisburg in 1745, Lake George in 1755, Bunker Hill, Saratoga, King's Mountain and New Orleans were all similar militia victories. The militia must be well led, must begin the battle under favorable conditions, and as Putnam said at Bunker Hill, must "have shelter for their legs"; granted the fulfillment of these conditions, and American militia have performed deeds of prowess unequaled outside the realm of legendary warfare.

Turning the page, however, we find that American history is dark with the record of military disaster caused by the inherent faultiness of the militia system. Camden, in 1780, and Detroit, in 1812, were such militia defeats; at Bladensburg, in 1814, American

militia, to the number of 5,401, fled with only the barest show of resistance, before less than 3,500 British troops, leaving the national capitol to be burned by the invader. Bull Run, in 1861, was a militia disaster.

Militia in every land and age were characterized by certain peculiarities. Their term of service was necessarily short—in the United States ranging from 30 days to 9 months; their field and range were consequently restricted to the vicinity. The subtraction of a large fraction of the laboring population produced a paralysis of industry. Owing to the lack of uniform military clothing and equipment, the militia presented a burlesque appearance, as noted by Shakespeare in his description of the "Falstaffian regiment," and later by Dryden in "Cymon and Iphigenia," Cowper in his "John Gilpin," and by Schuckburgh in "Yankee Doodle." Democracy was ever the characteristic quality of the militia, democracy strong in the local interest which it engendered and the friendly ties subsisting between officers and men, but weak by reason of an injection of neighborhood politics into every military relationship.

Militia organizations were always local in composition, being merely the man-power of the community temporarily organized for warfare, and were also local in their control, the officers being men prominent in the vicinage. The characteristic localism was emphasized and perpetuated by the militia clause of the federal constitution—the states and not the United States, selected the officers, and afterwards rewarded them by promotion or penalized them by withholding advancement. Indeed, neolithic customs persisted to such a degree that, for the most part, the members of the militia elected their own officers, whereof the purport was that the government had forfeited its most fundamental instrumentality for maintaining discipline. From time to time subsequent to 1791, the federal government attempted to gain possession of the officer-appointing right, but ever with limited success; a direct move in this direction, made in 1812, was flatly resisted by Connecticut. In consequence of such localism, militia discipline was always defective.

Worst of all the militia characteristics was the purchasability of exemption by such as were rich enough to afford the price; in most lands throughout the ages, certainly in the United States, the citizen was offered the option of paying a fine and being excused, in case he did not wish to render personal service. The custom of rating the money of the wealthy as equal to the life and manhood of the poor, always provoked just resentment in the minds of Americans—and indeed of true men everywhere; the Jacksonian democracy here found justification for their attacks upon the system. Shakespeare made Falstaff express the villainy of it: "I have got, in exchange of a hundred and fifty soldiers, three hundred and odd pounds. I press me none but good householders, yeoman's sons, inquire me out contracted bachelors, such as had been asked twice on the banns; and they have bought out their services." When Frederick the Great and the Landgrave of Hesse and Duke Charles of Brunswick

"pressed" their poorer, less fortunate militiamen into their regular, professional regiments, and especially when the last two sold the services of their subjects to fight for George III in far-away America, they caused the entire militia system to stink.

Switzerland, since 1874, has possessed the most perfect militia army in the world. With service universally compulsory and no exemption by purchase and no substitution whatever, every able-bodied citizen devoted 60 days to the army at the age of 20, and thereafter each year 11 days until he attained the age of 32, and remained a reservist until the age of 48; the training of the force became a federal function. Undoubtedly the details of this plan were copied from the selective service which, as we shall see, was then in vogue beyond the German frontier; indeed developments to the northward had indicated the need of such efficient training for the Swiss army.

III. THE DRAFT SYSTEM.

From time to time the exigencies of a military campaign compelled nations to extend their militia systems into something more adequate for prolonged warfare. Xerxes, Scipio in the campaigns against Hannibal, and Gustavus Adolphus—each held his militia under arms for periods so long as to transcend the proper limitations. On at least these three occasions, militia conscription was transformed into draft conscription; the essential difference between the militia and the draft is one of short or long continuance. The British Plantagenets and their royal successors, Frederick the Great, the Landgrave of Hesse and the Duke of Brunswick strained the militia system yet more violently when they actually drafted their militiamen into their regular armies, there to serve for protracted periods.

France enjoyed the distinction of adapting the old Latin word "conscription" (or selection) to military usage, and making it the designation for compulsory service. The new French Republic met its military emergency by organizing national guards (the origin of the name) in 1789, calling out one-year volunteers in 1791, requisitioning national guards as volunteers in 1793, and the same year making a levy-in-mass of all militiamen between the ages of 18 and 25; when the French armies dwindled in spite of the epochal victory at Valmy in 1792, while the numbers of France's enemies continued to increase, the government, in the fall of 1798, faced a critical situation. On September 5 of that year, the Directory, in response to the advocacy of Jean B. Jourdan, enacted the "Conscription law," compelling every man to render 5 years' service between the ages of 20 and 25,—and furnished the world with a new word for its military vocabulary. The Jourdan system was a draft conscription; the nation assumed no responsibility for supplying the needs of industry, and after 1800, definitely permitted citizens to evade military duty by purchasing substitutes. As the levy-in-mass of 1793 had also been an instance of the draft, five years earlier than Jourdan's, it deprived the latter of most of his credit for originality; the law of 1798, besides popularizing a new word, merely inaugurated a more efficient method of enforcement for the existing draft.

France, except during the years 1814-1818, held to the draft system until 1871. The French example was followed successively by Austria, Italy, Russia, Spain, Portugal, Holland and Belgium; the draft was adopted by Turkey in 1826, and by Japan in 1873. Only in Prussia did different ideas prevail concerning conscription.

President Madison urged Congress to enact draft legislation in 1814, but found himself blocked by the defenders of state rights; the treaty of Ghent presently rendered the proposed law unnecessary. January 29, 1862, the Confederate Provisional Congress authorized a draft of militiamen for a term of 3 years—the French levy-in-mass was repeating itself. In the North, Lincoln introduced a new ramification of the draft system when, on January 31, 1862, he "drafted" the personnel of all railroads into the military service of the government; the plan met with a cordial response everywhere and proved successful.

On April 16, 1862, the Confederate Congress threw the theory of state rights to the winds and enacted the first "Conscription law," which required 3 years of military service for every able-bodied citizen between the ages of 18 and 35; following the French model, provision was made for substitution. The Confederacy had lost Donelson and all Kentucky and Tennessee, and had suffered defeat at Shiloh and on the Peninsula; 100,000 volunteers had completed their terms and were about to return home. Despite violent opposition from the state rights advocates, and more justifiable resistance by those who resented the discrimination against manhood in favor of property, the law worked wonders. The term-expired volunteers remained at the front; in all, 101,922 conscripts entered service and 76,000 other citizens volunteered in anticipation of the draft—22 per cent of the total Southern armies. Victory soon came at the second battle of Bull Run, which opened the way for Lee's invasion of the North; Tennessee was recovered, and Kentucky invaded.

We have seen how the federal law of July 17, 1862, failed to restore compulsion to the militia system, although designed for that purpose; the states followed the course of least resistance (and greatest expense) by procuring volunteer militiamen through the payment of ever-increasing bounties. Of 300,000 secured for the armies under the law, only 87,000 were drafted men; all others volunteered.

After the defeat at Fredericksburg and the costly victory at Murfreesboro, the North was compelled to enact draft legislation similar to that enacted eleven months earlier by the South; the "Draft Act" became a law on March 3, 1863, requiring military service by all able-bodied citizens between the ages of 20 and 45.

Difficulties attended the introduction of the draft from the very outset. The law was adopted as a party measure, the vote being, in the House, 115 to 49, and in the Senate, 35 to 11, with all Democrats in opposition. Owing to lack of experience, the federal government made the mistake of attempting to enforce the act exclusively through federal agencies, and created an elaborate organization of provost marshals, whose duty it was to secure conscripts in disregard

of local sentiment—to "go in and get them," as President Wilson later described the process. Owing to the discrimination in favor of the rich, involved in the provision permitting substitution, the draft was sufficiently unpopular at best. Drafting actually began on July 11, 1863, and on the 13th rioting broke out in New York City, followed the next day by similar violence in Boston and elsewhere. During the four days of mob control in New York City, many negroes were murdered, and more than \$2,000,000 worth of property was destroyed.

Again did the states turn to bounty payments as a means of securing volunteers in order to fill the draft quotas. While 776,829 men were drafted during 1863 and 1864, only 42,347 of them actually rendered military service, the remainder securing exemption by one means or another. Indirectly, however, through stimulated volunteering and bounties, 1,120,621 men were added to the Union armies—numbers which insured the ultimate victory of the North. The bounty payments attained the staggering total of more than \$500,000,000.

IV. THE SELECTIVE SERVICE PLAN.

A third system of conscription had meanwhile come into existence, the Prussian or selective service plan. Prussia, crushed at Jena in 1806, was compelled to agree, in the Treaty of Tilsit, to limit her army to 42,000 men—Napoleon intended to terminate the Prussian peril once for all. The Prussian army, which went down in defeat, had been constituted on the professional basis, in accordance with the plans of Frederick the Great. The nation now imitated France in employing conscription as the means for raising its new army. But how could conscription be made compatible with the rigid numerical limitation? General Scharnhorst solved the problem with his "Krümpersystem," the plan of short service, which had never occurred to Napoleon as a possibility. The first class of 42,000 soldiers were regarded merely as the skeleton of a far larger force, and continued in active service only long enough to receive essential training, and then returned to civilian occupations, retaining, however, the military status of reserves, liable to take the field when recalled by the government; and were replaced in active training and service by a second 42,000; and so on. As one class followed another through the period of active training, they brought the number of soldiers in Prussia up to an unimagined total. When, in 1813, the kingdom resumed war against Napoleon, it was able to put in the field an army of 250,000 men, most of them graduates of the "Krümpersystem."

As it gradually dawned on the Prussian mind that Scharnhorst's system was more than an emergency measure, makeshift in its nature, indeed, that it was the best possible arrangement for organizing a nation's military strength, the Minister of War, von Boyen, induced the King to proclaim a new law on September 3, 1814. Every able-bodied male citizen was enrolled in the active army for 3 years; following 2 years of leave, he served 7 years more in the first-call *Landwehr*, 7 years in the second-call *Landwehr*, and finally in the *Landsturm*. Provision was

made for the needs of industry by excusing certain groups of skilled workers, or by detailing men to do such work as part of their military duty; no exemption or substitution whatever was permitted in return for the payment of money—the system was truly democratic.

Prussia stood alone in Europe during the ensuing fifty-four years; no other nation adopted her system of military service. Gradually increasing in strength, she outstripped all the other German states. In 1860 Bismarck secured the enactment of further legislation—in the face of strenuous opposition—rendering the Boyen law yet more efficient; 63,000 men were called to the colors annually at the age of 20, to remain 3 years in the army, 4 in the reserve and 5 in the *Landsturm*; and substitution continued under the ban. This army defeated Denmark in 1864, Austria in 1866, and France in 1870.

While the Prussian plan was not immediately adopted by any other European nation, it was accepted, under stress of circumstances, by the Confederate States of America, December 28, 1863. On that date the Confederate Congress abolished the privilege of substitution in the existing conscript army, and so crossed the divide which separates the draft from the selective service; everyone between the ages of 17 and 50 was compelled to enter the military organization in some capacity or other. Supplementary legislation on February 17, 1864, arranged the necessary details relative to essential industry and kindred matters. One weakness, however, persisted; the ancient militia custom of permitting the troops to elect their own officers continued to be embodied in Confederate legislation to the very last, and did much to impair the discipline of the armies. The South was facing her final crisis in the beginning of 1864; the adoption of this form of conscription enabled her to maintain resistance throughout the year—and secured for the Confederacy the honor of standing second to Prussia in the entire world as practitioner of the most advanced military system.

Austria adopted the Prussian methods in 1868; France, under the leadership of Thiers, in 1872; Italy in 1873; Russia in 1874; and Japan in 1883. During the World War, in 1916, Great Britain forsook her age-long allegiance to the volunteer system and enacted a selective service law; even then she adhered to ancient forms while adopting modern methods, and decreed that all able-bodied men should—not be compelled to serve, but—be "deemed to have been duly enlisted."

When General Upton's book, *The Military Policy of the United States*, was brought to light from the archives of the War Department in 1903, it produced a reformation in American military affairs comparable to the one occasioned in the life of ancient Judah by the discovery of the book of Deuteronomy. Standing on the teachings of Upton, President Roosevelt and Secretary Root actively propagated the idea that America must "prepare" if she was to be safe; from this effort, there developed, in 1914, the Plattsburg camps. As the World War progressed it aroused widespread interest in military matters, and ultimately

produced a strong sentiment in favor of compulsory service. The Mexican border duty of the volunteer national guard in 1916 resulted so inequitably for its participants as to win their approval for conscription methods.

Conditions were critical when the United States entered the World War; the withdrawal of Russia, in process during 1917, left the result very much in doubt, and rendered it essential that new armies come forward to fill the gap. President Wilson was a Virginian by birth, nurtured in the home of state rights and of the earliest American conscription; he was a master of English expression, and an historian able to draw profitable lessons from the mistakes of the past. An unquestioned lover of peace, he commanded popular confidence.

In his "war message" of April 2, 1917, Wilson took occasion to urge the adoption of "universal liability" as the principle upon which the new armies were to be raised. We declared war. On May 18 the "selective service law" was signed and became effective, requiring every able-bodied man between the ages of 21 and 30 to do military duty; no substitution whatever was permitted. Five additional items of legislation were enacted subsequently, in order to strengthen and perfect the system; provision was made for the efficient maintenance of essential industry. The age limits were presently established at 18 and 45.

Wilson knew that a federal system of enforcing such a sacrificial law could not prove effective, and he drew upon the treasure-store of history for wiser methods. In this war the nation was not "to go in and get" its men; now it was assumed that a national act of volunteering had taken place, and selection was to be made from people who had "volunteered in mass." "Let each state offer its young men," he wrote to Congress. The state function was not to officer the regiments, as it had been under the militia system; the state now set up and administered a draft-enforcing machine, in which local officials, selected from the neighborhood, rendered effective amongst their friends and associates this most inquisitorial national law.

The selective service made its first actual impact upon the manhood of America June 5, 1917; on that day all men between the ages of 21 and 30 were called to register themselves. A feeling of solemnity possessed all hearts; a holiday was declared; at the stated hour, church bells rang as though summoning men to worship. While misunderstanding prevented the smooth working of the system in some localities, and while eighteen days (between May 18 and June 5) had been insufficient for bringing into line all the governors, and sheriffs, and mayors of large cities, in the United States, nevertheless there was a marvelously complete response. The total number of registrants for military service ultimately came to be 9,925,751.

Registrants were grouped in five classes, those of Class I being most directly liable for duty; the classification eliminated the necessity for wasting time and effort on physical examinations for men who would not be inducted into the army in any event. The classification also helped solve other problems.

Pressing in importance was the problem of the alien. He could remain at home and take the job vacated by the patriotic citizen, and if he were disturbed in his security, he might stir up complications with foreign nations. It was primarily because of the alien that the classification was introduced; as long as quotas were based upon the total population, they bore unjustly upon industrial communities where aliens were numerous, aliens who increased the quota without increasing the available man-supply. After May 16, 1918, quotas were based upon the numbers in Class I. Two-thirds of all aliens were placed, at their own request, in deferred classes. About 56,000 aliens enlisted voluntarily in the armies of the allies. Neutral aliens to the number of 5,852, who found their way into the army, were discharged at their own request; 1,600 aliens who had declared their intention of becoming Americans, and who withdrew such declarations in order to escape service, were forever barred from citizenship. Public-spirited alien men, numbering 179,816, voluntarily took out citizenship papers in order to render themselves liable for service—indeed, the number was actually larger, for available statistics cover only a single year of the war. One-third of America's aliens did not ask to be exempted and voluntarily assumed responsibility for military duty.

Various provisions were made for the needs of industry. Workers who supported dependent relatives received deferment into Class IV; members of certain essential vocations were entered in Class V and thus assured against disturbance, except under most urgent circumstances. Workers in necessary industry were placed in Class I, II, III or IV, according to their individual importance in their employment; 7-19 per cent were thus deferred for the sake of agriculture, and 1.96 per cent in the interest of other industry. The needs of the shipbuilders were met by allowing them to take the labor of 146,435 "emergency fleet corporation" workers—men not given deferred classification, but whose induction into military service was temporarily suspended while they built or manned ships; 33 per cent of these were from Class I. The personnel of the railways was given deferment at the judgment of the local boards; the same rule held for miners and others employed by the "fuel administration." Modern America probably received its most violent shock on May 17, 1918, from the "work or fight" order; men, who refused to engage in some form of productive labor, were compelled to enter the service and take the chances of battle. Thus 137,255 were sent into the ranks of industry—and one man, who persistently refused to work, deliberately chose to fight as the lesser of the two evils—and was reported to have made an excellent soldier.

It was in supplying the needs of industry that the selective service proved least thoroughgoing. Instead of enrolling everyone in the army, providing clothing and sustenance equally for all, and compelling all to render service for the soldier's pay and under military discipline, which would obviously have been the equitable method, the government permitted industrial workers to earn inordinately high wages, while it compelled soldiers and sailors to risk life and limb

for "a dollar a day." It was obvious that the men who fought (and lost health and good jobs), would some day demand an adjustment of pay, so as to remedy the inequity.

Both the newspapers, and certain significant facts, combined in testifying to the popular support and approval accorded the selective service. In the press there were few dissenting voices, and those were inconspicuous. Only 5,870 arrests were made in the entire United States for failure to register up to December 1, 1917. The men charged with draft desertion numbered 337,649. Only 1.41 per cent of the national registration—and it presently developed that a large percentage of these had enlisted in the national guard or the Canadian forces without waiting for the decision of the local boards. Recalcitrant "conscientious objectors" who refused to serve even in civilian capacity amounted to 1,697.

On April 1, 1917, the combined military and naval forces of the United States had numbered 378,619; by November 11, 1918, when the army and navy were at their numerical maximum, they totaled 4,791,172. Of these 1,083,044 had been added to the army by enlistment (a process stimulated by the knowledge of universal liability) and 2,810,296 by induction; 510,290 had been enlisted in the navy, and 8,923 had been inducted. By the rapid and overwhelming mobilization of her forces, America was instrumental in ending the war.

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Statement of the Ownership, Management, Circulation, etc., required by the Act of Congress of August 24, 1912

of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except July, August and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for April 1, 1923.

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Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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Developing a Departmental Policy of Instruction in the Social Sciences

BY EDWARD S. DOWELL, HEAD, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, BUCYRUS (O.), HIGH SCHOOL

I. INTRODUCTION: OBJECT OF THIS PAPER.

In the March, 1923, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, there appeared an article on "Coördinating the Courses in Social Science in Bucyrus High School by Means of Departmental Meetings." At that time, the statement was made that the same periodical would publish in the near future a detailed statement of the departmental policy of instruction that was evolved last year in connection with the meetings of the Social Science Department of Bucyrus High School.

So, in this article, an effort will be made to set forth clearly and comprehensively that departmental policy of instruction.

II. WHAT IS A DEPARTMENTAL POLICY OF INSTRUCTION?

For the sake of clearness, it is essential that we know what is meant by a departmental policy of instruction. It might be well, first of all, to give some consideration to what it is not. Certainly, it is not an iron-clad, detailed plan for classroom procedure. Here flexibility, so necessary in classroom management, would be lacking and the initiative of the instructor would be deadened by the pedagogical straitjacket of hard and fast rules. Moreover, it is not a series of general rules for classroom guidance. Generalities, well as they may sound, can be of little help. In fact, they may seriously interfere with effective classroom instruction. A departmental policy of instruction, in the writer's judgment, should consist of a series of practical, concrete suggestions that are applicable, with some variations of course, to all the classroom work in the Social Sciences and which will produce maximum quality and quantity results. To summarize: A departmental policy must recognize four fundamental facts:

- I. It must be based upon experience.
- II. It must allow for variations.
- III. It must be workable.
- IV. It must be able to produce substantial qualitative and quantitative results.

III. VALUE OF A DEPARTMENTAL POLICY OF INSTRUCTION.

Assuming that the policy is intelligent, flexible and practical, and that it is reasonably well carried out, the question naturally arises: Has such a policy any value?

The value of any policy must be measured by the product it turns out. With this in mind, we can affirm most emphatically that a departmental policy of instruction gets better results than can be secured without one. To illustrate, let us take the case of writing semester papers. The student begins writing papers in his Sophomore year in the course in Modern History. He continues the practice during his Junior

and Senior years. Now, if a correct and definite departmental policy is in use, he will be able to write a very creditable paper during his Senior year. It will, without doubt, be much superior to the paper he would write if no policy in regard to this particular thing was in vogue.

Let us consider another example. The instructors in Social Science pursue a program to develop themselves professionally. This inevitably will lead to better instruction and the students will consequently secure better training than would otherwise be the case.

Further examples might be cited, but it is hardly necessary to prove the point.

IV. INSTRUCTIONAL POLICY OF BUCYRUS HIGH SCHOOL.

Since the departmental policy of instruction must fit into the instructional policy of the school, it will work for clarification if we give brief consideration to the high school's policy of instruction.

In Bucyrus High School, the lengthened period is used. This period, which is sixty-two minutes long, is divided into two parts. The first of twenty-seven minutes is devoted to recitation or discussion work and the remaining thirty-five minutes is given over to study or investigation.¹ The recitation portion of the period is taken up with four things: (1) A statement of the work previously done; (2) The recapitulation or review; (3) A statement of the work of the day; (4) The discussion of the day's work. All this is carried on by means of the "socialized" recitation. The study or investigation portion is devoted to two things: (1) The assignment for the next day; (2) The study of that assignment.²

During the entire lengthened period, certain lines of instruction and management are employed. There must be (1) self activity, (2) maximum participation, (3) proportion, (4) novelty and variety, and (5) dispatch.³

V. NATURE OF THE DEPARTMENTAL POLICY OF INSTRUCTION IN BUCYRUS HIGH SCHOOL.

The Social Science departmental policy seeks to supplement rather than replace the high school policy of instruction as outlined above. This policy concerns itself with nine things—all of which are vital to good teaching in the Social Sciences. These are (1) the use of the notebook, (2) the use of the textbook, (3) the use of the problem sheet, (4) the use of outside reading, (5) the use of tests, special reports and term papers, (6) the use of local data and special trips, (7) the use of the discussion and investigation portions of the lengthened period, (8) creating interest in the work, and (9) professional growth. Let us now give consideration to these somewhat in detail.

A—*The Use of the Notebook.*

Every instructor is expected to use a notebook in the Social Science course that he gives. In the interest of efficiency, it seemed desirable to use a loose-leaf notebook instead of the permanently bound type of book and the one selected was "The Excel-All Loose Leaf Notebook," 9 x 12, published by The Dobson-Evans Co., of Columbus, Ohio. The students are furnished with problem sheets each day and these are put in the notebook so that when the book is opened the problem sheet will be at the left of the center of the book. Opposite this sheet, the student inserts a sheet of white, ruled paper, designed for this type of book and on this sheet he writes the answers to the problems. The answers are not to be written out in essay form, but are of the concise note type. Such a plan is excellent, for the answers take for can readily see whether the student has found the up small space, can be easily written and the instructor of the problem. In writing the answers, pencil or ink may be used—the latter is preferable. Once a month, the notebooks are collected and inspected carefully. The instructor's estimate of the book is indicated on a notebook blank. Below is given a copy of this blank:

	Date
Incomplete	
Poor answers	
Too detailed answers	
Not neat	
O. K.	
	Instructor

A check mark after the above items indicates to the student the defects in his notebook—things to be corrected immediately and avoided in the future. The blanks, when filled out by the instructor, are put in the notebooks and returned to the students for careful study. At the close of the semester, the notebooks are graded, and this grade constitutes one-fourth of the semester grade.

B—*The Use of the Textbook.*

In all the courses in Social Science, a text is used, although it is understood that under certain conditions a text may be dispensed with. In the department, with some new and little experienced teachers every year, it would be hazardous to do without a text. Where instructors have had considerable experience and are familiar with the field in which they are working, the text may not be necessary. In selecting a text, effort has been made to secure three things. First, a text that is an outline of the subject taught and not burdened with too much detail. In none of our courses have we been able to find exactly such a text. Second, a text that does not needlessly repeat work covered in earlier courses. For instance, in

Twelfth Grade American History, the text should not be like the one used in the Eighth year with just a little more detail added. Only a few texts meet this requirement. Third, a text that lays emphasis, in a practical way, upon present-day problems. Most of the Social Science texts today devote much space to these problems. As already indicated, the text is used merely as an outline or guide. In the Social Science courses in the Junior High School, the text constitutes about one-half of the material studied and in the courses in the Senior High School, only one-fourth of the material is in the text. The department believes firmly that an instructor should teach a subject, not a text. It also recognizes the value of a text of the right sort as an outline or guide.

C—*The Use of the Problem Sheet.*

Each day, every student is furnished with a mimeographed copy of a series of problems. This copy is known as the problem sheet and constitutes the lesson assignment for the day. The number of problems on the sheet will vary with the type of material under consideration, but the number should seldom be less than ten or more than fifteen. Such a number can be thoroughly considered in the twenty-five minutes allotted to the discussion work. One-third of the problems should be based upon the text and the rest should require outside reading for their solution. This is in keeping with the principle of making the text serve merely as a guide in the work. Not more than half the problems are to call for information; the rest are to demand serious thinking and analysis. These types of problems are necessary both for the development of the students and for a thorough knowledge of the subject. In the courses in Geography, Economics, Sociology and Civics, the problems one day should seek to bring out the underlying principles of a certain phase of the work and the following day the problems should necessitate the application of the principles established to actual, every-day conditions. In formulating all problems, the two things are to be kept constantly in mind: (1) definiteness and (2) concreteness.

D—*The Use of Outside Reading.*

Recognizing the value of outside reading to a thorough understanding of the various courses in Social Science and, in view of the fact that the department is equipped with a splendid working reference library, outside reading is given a prominent place in the work. The department has discarded the method commonly used in high schools of assigning a certain number of pages of outside reading for each day or week. Such assignments lack that definiteness necessary for satisfactory results. Our plan is to assign each day certain problems—two-thirds of the entire assignment—that require outside reading for their solution. When the problem sheets are distributed, it is desirable to call the attention of the students to the problems in the day's assignment that can be answered only by doing outside reading. The books most helpful for all such problems should be indicated. Experience has abundantly proved that better results can be secured by this means. In con-

nection with special reports and semester papers, outside reading is required. In the following section, we will have something to say about the way it is handled in connection with them.

E—The Use of Tests, Special Reports and Semester Papers.

The common practice in regard to tests is to have one at the end of each month covering the work done during that period. The length of such test is usually between forty-five and fifty minutes. The justification for such a test is that it compels the student to review the month's work systematically. The Social Science Department in Bucyrus High School is not in accord with such a plan and therefore follows a different method. The regular monthly test has been abolished and in its place there has been substituted a weekly written exercise of from five to ten minutes in length. These exercises may cover any part of the work—the last week's work, the last month's work, or even the last three months' work. The time for this written work is not announced beforehand. Our policy requires the student to have all the work that has been gone over well in hand, and, at the same time, it avoids the nerve-racking, long test that too often does not adequately measure a student's ability. We feel that the method employed in our department has more to commend it than the prevailing practice.

The worthwhileness of special reports in Social Science courses is no longer academic and no satisfactory course in Social Science can do without them. Therefore, every student is required to give at least four special reports each semester in the Social Science course he takes. In *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for December, 1921, the way in which special reports are given in the course in Sociology in Bucyrus High School was explained. This method is now used in all the courses in Social Science. It does not seem desirable to repeat here what was said in that article.

The usefulness of semester papers is self-evident. The departmental policy calls for at least one long paper each semester from all students taking Social Science courses in the Senior High School. The article, which was mentioned in the previous paragraph, also contains a detailed description of the method used in writing semester papers in our course in Sociology and this method is now used in every Social Science course in the Sophomore, Junior and Senior years. In the Junior High School, three short semester papers are required and are to be written as simple essays distinct from the more elaborate papers required of the older students.

F—The Use of Local Data and Special Trips.

Local data are used in connection with the courses in Geography, Civics, Economics and Sociology. Local data give the student valuable practical information, and can be used constructively to create a real and vital interest in the work. At least one-eighth and not more than one-fifth of the course is given over to a consideration of such material. This is collected and brought before the class in the form of special reports, semester papers, special trips and mimeo-

graphed sheets. The latter method is exceedingly valuable. The instructor collects and arranges the data which he thinks will aid his students in the work at hand and through the mimeographed sheet the student gets this material in a convenient and usable form.

Special trips are given a place in the above courses, because, through them, interest is created, variety secured and real insight into certain phases of social activity obtained. Four trips at least are required each semester in Geography, Civics, Economics and Sociology. Before making these trips, the instructor issues to each student, in mimeographed form, a set of instructions to help him get the most out of the trips. After every trip, each student must submit a report. The way in which the report is prepared is determined by the instructor of the course in consultation with the head of the department.

G—The Use of the Discussion and Investigation Portions of the Lengthened Period.

The success of the lengthened period depends in no small degree upon observing the proper time limits. In the department, the plan is to keep the discussion from going beyond twenty-five minutes. During the discussion, the objective is to secure team work in handling the problem sheet of the day. To do this, four things are kept constantly to the fore: (1) Every student is expected to make at least one substantial contribution to the day's discussion; (2) in addition to this, he is expected to volunteer at least four times to make contributions to the work and so to distribute this volunteering as to convince the instructor that the entire day's lesson has been carefully prepared; (3) further, it should not be necessary for the instructor to call on any student to make a contribution, (if (1) and (2) are carried out, (3) will be, also); (4) in discussing the problems, the contributions should be intelligent and worthwhile. Every instructor is expected to "put these things across." During the discussion, the instructor completely abdicates. He is not to talk or interfere with student participation unless things get out of bounds. At the close of the discussion, he can use two or three minutes for his comments.

The investigation portion is to take not less than thirty-five minutes. It is expected that the instructor will keep a close tab on what each student is doing. In other words, he is to see that everyone works. Equally important is the task of aiding the students in the use of reference material, showing them how to find the important things and suggesting proper ways of note-taking. The instructor should so organize the work that he gets around at least once during every investigation period to see each student. The whole business of the teacher, in a word, is to help the student to help himself.

In handling the discussion and the investigation work, the instructor is free to experiment; in fact, it is hoped that he will do so. There are only two restrictions to experimentation. The experiment must not conflict with the requirements already stated, and, before undertaking the experiment, it must receive the approval of the head of the department.

H—Creating Interest in the Work.

Effective teaching is impossible without interest. The student must see the worth or value of the proposition he is studying. Interest is the crux of the whole matter. If interest is to be created, three elements are very essential—the instructor must have a good personality, he must know his field and he must be a master of classroom technique. The Social Science Department recognizes the value of creating interest and seeks, in so far as it can be done by a departmental policy, to make the work interesting to the students. With this in mind, six things are insisted upon. First, the assignment shall be definite and made in such a way as to awaken curiosity. Second, the lesson shall be in the form of problems so phrased that the pupil can interpret them in the light of his experience. Third, the problems shall be practical so that the student can see their relation to his present and future needs. Fourth, when new subject matter is taken up, an introductory paragraph that will give the material a proper setting is to be used, or, the instructor in assigning the work for the next day can briefly introduce the subject. Fifth, individual work with the students, with a view of finding out each student's ambitions and experiences so that he can be shown how the work of the day will help him attain these, should be carried out. Sixth, special trips that will give students a new viewpoint of the work and its relation to life are to be planned. It is strongly recommended that in the courses in History and Civics one discussion period every two weeks be given over to a study of Current Events or Current Problems. Any other agencies, such as the use of variety and competition, that will stimulate interest can be used.

I—Professional Growth.

An instructor, who does not grow in his work, is of little, if any, value to a department. Professional growth is necessary to successful teaching. The department insists that each instructor shall adopt and carry out during the year a program that will yield professional benefits. Considerable latitude is allowed in this, but every program should provide for the following four things as a minimum: First, at least two books dealing with the subject matter of the course taught should be carefully perused. These books should be recent and written by competent authors. Second, every instructor should have access to the standard journal in his field and this should be carefully studied. For example, the teacher of Civics is expected to digest the contents of the quarterly issues of the *American Political Science Review*. Third, with a view of improving the method of teaching, each instructor is expected to read critically each month *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. This valuable journal contains many helpful articles on methods of teaching Social Science subjects. From these papers excellent suggestions can be obtained that will help the "live" instructor experiment constructively in his work. Fourth, sane experimentation in the organization of material and in the technique of presenting it

should be undertaken. Professional growth is encouraged through the monthly meetings of the department. These meetings are arranged with a view of helping the instructors to grow in the work they are teaching. In fact, one of the basic reasons for these meetings is to keep the Social Science Department from "getting into a rut."

VI. THE RESULTS OF THIS POLICY.

It is much too early to speak with finality on the success of the departmental policy that has just been discussed, for it has been in operation less than a year. Continued use will undoubtedly reveal defects in details that will have to be modified, but the main features of the policy in the writer's judgment, will need scarcely any alteration. There are three things that lead to the conclusion that it will accomplish all that has been expected of it. First of all, it squares with the best educational thought of the day. Nothing already considered runs counter to the basic educational principle that learning is accomplished by doing. With a policy built upon firm foundation, it should be rich in substantial results. Moreover, the members of the department are sympathetic toward it. They have had a share in its formation. They know that it makes for stability and system without being rigid and dwarfing. There is plenty of room for individual initiative and growth, and yet it holds all to a plan that is necessary to get the maximum results. Furthermore, a most auspicious beginning has been made in carrying out this policy. The Social Science work is being done now with a precision and skill that was unknown before. It may take several years before very tangible results can be noted in the work of the students, but today, thanks to this policy, there is an atmosphere that is most encouraging. It is always dangerous to prophesy, but everything seems to indicate that our new departmental policy will completely change the method and the spirit of the department for the better.

VII. CONCLUSION.

The departmental policy outlined is offered as a small contribution to the technique of teaching the Social Sciences. Frankly, it is an experiment, but on such lines that it can hardly be classed as radical or revolutionary. It may suggest to those teachers who are trying to break away from the outworn methods of the past some things that will help them develop a policy and improve their instruction. It will render some service to teachers of Social Science, outside of Bucyrus High School, if it stimulates them to give serious thought to the problem of a departmental policy of instruction.

¹ My article in the December, 1920, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* discusses the way in which the lengthened period is used in the History courses in Bucyrus High School.

² These elements are well-discussed in article by Eula M. Young and M. R. Simpson on "A Technique for the Lengthened Period" in the *School Review*, March, 1922.

Some Experiments in Cooperation Between History and English in High School

BY STERLING ANDRUS LEONARD, DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN
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Coöperation between departments has often been attempted in a one-sided manner. English teachers have appealed to history teachers for help in establishing forms which are rather the English teacher's pet predilection than genuine essentials of expression, and history teachers have now and then appealed to their colleagues to launder soiled themes—that is, to correct them for elementary matters of decent form. Genuine coöperation must obviously be mutual. The best example which I can cite is in an allied field—the two-handed teaching of community life and English inaugurated in the Chicago University High School,* where the essentials of coöperation are fully met; reading is actively promoted which will make for widened, excellent experience and for history that is "live and not dead," and subject matter for genuine and vital composition is fully provided. Thus, at the same time the essentials of intelligent reading and effective, socially acceptable composition are provided.

Similar experiments in coöperation between the regular history courses and the work in English in the upper years of high school have been tried with good results in several schools. That written work which is genuine composition can, I believe, be best handled by two departments working together. By composition I do not here mean the precise restatement of material in texts—the making of abstracts and outlines and similar recitations. This is, undoubtedly, useful material, but its most important contribution is to the teaching of intelligent reading, and it belongs in high school, I think, to the history classes chiefly. By genuine composition, on the other hand, I mean the pupil's reorganization and fusion of his own experience, and his individual restatement of ideas which he has apprehended—his living reaction to them.

This kind of writing is done to good effect, in the earlier years of high school and even in the elementary grades, in the preparation of small narratives—an incident in Magellan's voyage or in Indian warfare, or a small drama of some happening in Colonial days or in ancient Rome. The crudity of these attempts—as when the Puritan women are made to hang their washing to dry on barbed-wire fences, or General Braddock meets young Washington's proposal emphatically with, "Not on your life!"—gives excellent opportunity for excursions further into the spirit and realities of a period, and leads to its better appreciation.

The type of themes to be used in the later years of high school should be increasingly interpretive. In the junior high school we may well cultivate seriatim biography or chronicle. In the later years we need particularly to stimulate analysis and interpretation. Here themes need to be organized about an interpretive sentence, and to present data in support of this.

That ancient rhetoric which has never been equaled in the flood of modern texts, the *Rhetoric* of Aristotle, suggests that the first process for the speaker is to "digest and make wholly his" the subject matter he must present, and the second to reconstruct and reconstitute it in view of the knowledge and individual interests of his audience. Only after full and elaborate discussion of these points in his first two books does Aristotle pass on to consider, in the third, the *technique* of the speech itself—matters of unity, coherence, and emphasis, sentence composition, and diction, which are too often the sole staple of modern texts and teaching of the subject. This digest and reorganization of subject matter history and English teachers can most effectively coöperate in securing, and this is, I suggest, of the first importance to the teaching of both history and composition.

For example, a high school senior last year who wanted to write on William Pitt succeeded in centering his discussion on "Why American Boys Should Know About William Pitt." With this in mind he selected for his sources only what contributed directly to the realization of his topic. We were spared the greater part of Pitt's "ancestry, birth, and early training" and given only that which bore upon the topic. The boy, a very poor student indeed, did a measurably good piece of work in assimilating and reconstructing the material which he got from his sources and presented a paper which was of real interest to his classmates. Similarly, a boy writing on Magellan's voyage tried to show that this expedition was significant for its time much as the Panama Canal is to ours; a girl working upon the Witchcraft delusion used as her starting point some modern superstitions known to all the class and pointed out how the same kind of beliefs grew to mad horror in that time. Two fearless boys set to work to examine the effect of the Ku Klux Klan in going outside the law, and started up salutary discussion.

Of course, all this might easily be utterly amateurish and unsound; without wise guidance by teachers of history, it is certain to be. It cannot, obviously, rise any higher than the abilities of high school pupils in study and presentation. But I have good authority for saying that the best papers written in this way by high school seniors are definitely better than the average of history course-papers by college seniors who are majors in history. To make the papers worth while ample reading in the best available sources is necessary. It has been found best to require arbitrarily not less than three specific sources; and one of these should be some kind of personal experience in the subject, if only a careful examination of museum exhibits or of charts and pictures. The value of an individual beginning to the themes has proved surprisingly great; a girl writing on the Jesuits in Wisconsin told of having her first interest in the

subject stimulated by seeing a small stone inscribed with the name of one of them; those who write on Indian customs frequently begin with whatever remnants they have seen in reservations or museums. This should be no mere "Introduction,"—it is always suggested that really introductory remarks be put into a preface—but rather a method of beginning as close as possible to the actual experience and ideas of one's readers and taking them directly thence into the midst of the subject.

The careful direction of reading for these papers may serve to acquaint pupils in a definite and useful way with many of the resources of the library and to help them form some judgment of the worth of various sources. I have found it most important to urge that pupils take very few notes, but make many and full citations—best on library cards giving the source in full and indicating briefly what is to be found there. From this type of collecting a pupil can, as he reads over his note-cards, gain an admirable notion of the extent of his subject. He can easily perform the necessary labor of limiting it to what he can handle in, say, from 1500 to 2000 words to be packed with concrete and specific details; and he can organize and reorganize to fit his purpose. He is meanwhile not clogged and hampered and forced into conscious or unconscious plagiarism by becoming involved in the wording of his sources, but is free to say the thing in his own way. He must, of course, be held carefully to checking back, both to verify his statements and refer them in proper footnotes, and to see that he has further acknowledged by quotation whatever he takes in others' wording.

The organization of such papers is a most difficult technique to teach or to master. The so-called logical outline with its meaningless "Introduction, Body, and Conclusion" and divisions down to a 2 and 1 appears to me valueless for purposes of prevision—preparing the material before writing or speaking. It may be made a good analytical device for checking over afterward. Probably the most serviceable form of outline is simply a sentence stating the main divisions—best never above three or four—and for each division a sentence announcing its subdivisions. Specific statement proves always better than mere headings, and specific limitation of subject aids both in cutting down the material to what the pupil can handle and in avoiding bad overlappings.

Following this organization process, which is best checked by the teachers of both subjects and gone over carefully, the pupil should bring in part or all of the rough draft of his theme with his scheme for footnotes and get the advice of the teachers upon both his subject matter and his success in presenting it. He can then be aided in two important and difficult processes: the revision of his material and of his organization, particularly to gain the maximum of clarity and effect; and the proofreading of his final draft for a few first essentials of social decency, such as recognition of the sentence unit, ordinary grammatical correctness, and right spelling. This matter of proofreading, by the way, which is a special and

hard process, is not sufficiently insisted upon, or even allowed, in most courses, whether in English or other subjects. If pupils were given always examinations which they could in particular organize, write, and proofread thoroughly in the given time, an immense saving would be effected in the teacher's eye-sight and nerves and a really great gain made possible in pupils' mastery of essential mechanics of writing.

The long themes as finally submitted should represent the pupil's best endeavor—his work over a long period of time. His genuine attention to matters of social courtesy should be evidenced in the clear, neat, and even elaborate preparation of his manuscript. Such work is a really huge contribution to the effective teaching of both subjects, as good an examination as can be devised. The necessity of this, and its radical difference from a memory examination or a test merely of understanding what is said on the page, necessary and fundamental as these also are, is sufficiently evident.

* Howard C. Hill: *Coöperation Between Community Life and English. School Review*, January-March, 1922.

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EUREKA HIGH SCHOOL, CALIFORNIA

Setting: The Palace of Civilization.

Prologue by the Herald.

Cast of Characters:

Mother of Civilization
Spirit of 1922.
Herald
Two Pages
Prehistoric Man
Egypt
Babylon
Assyria
Phoenicia
Hebrew
Chorus of Greek Girls
Rome

PROLOGUE

(Spoken by the Herald)

People of Eureka, ye who come to see
Enacted here some hours of pageantry,
Lend us your patience and we will display
Characters and gifts of the ancient day
I, the herald, Behold
How at my word time's curtain is uprolled
Revealing the mother of civilization upon a golden
throne
Telling the story that she alone doth know,
To the Spirit of 1922.
Soon shall you see her story pictured on the stage,
Characters of each nation announced by the page;
Prehistoric Man will now to you tell
Of the life and ways he loved so well.
Then let us take an interesting look
Into Egypt's ancient historical book.
Next Babylon in flowing robes appears
To her story let us all lend our ears,
To see what she will have to relate.
The Hebrew with the Bible in hand
Is ready to obey his Lord's commands.
Enter Assyria of the ancient time
To tell us of her great decline.
Then Greece of the Golden Age appears
With wonders she accomplished during ancient
years;
Rome, the mistress of many lands,
Ruled her colonies with a mighty hand.
Into their times dim and far we bid you gaze
Down the long vista of departed days,
Tonight the past will open wider her doors,
Scenes long since gone return to us once more.

PAGEANT.

(The curtain rises with the stage as the palace of civilization; the Mother of Civilization is seated on a large, golden throne which is in the center of the stage. Mother of Civilization is dressed in a white robe and

wears a crown on her head. Two pages, dressed as courtiers, are standing to the right and the left of her throne.)

(Rap is heard at the door. Page on left goes to door, returns and bowing to M. of C., says:)

Page.—The Spirit of 1922 wishes to gain admittance to your palace.

M. of C.—Bid her enter.

(Spirit of 1922, dressed as fairy, comes in and bows before the M. of C. The M. of C. rises as Spirit of 1922 approaches the throne.)

Spirit of 1922.—I, the Spirit of 1922, have long been searching for the source whereof I may learn of the Past Ages. I have sought entrance to your palace as I have been told, Mother of Civilization, that you held the secrets of the Ancient Peoples, and you alone are capable of revealing these secrets unto me. I plead of you to grant my request and unfold to me the wonders that I have long sought.

M. of C.—Now that I have learned your mission I will endeavor to open the doors of the past and spread before you the mysteries that have long concerned many people. I will bring before you in person the ancient nations that each may tell its own story. (To page on right:) Summon Prehistoric Man.

(Page on right goes for Prehistoric Man. Prehistoric Man enters, dressed in skins of animals. Carries in one hand an axe or flint arrows and in other a bunch of grain.)

M. of C.—(To Prehistoric Man:) I have summoned you to my court that you may relate to the Spirit of 1922 your life, and display your gifts to the story of man's progress.

Prehistoric Man.—I desired to roam in the forest like a beast, earning my living as I could, but instinct told me to plant seeds in the ground and gather their returns, to domesticate animals, to make fire and cook my food, to build crude huts, to make weapons and to clothe myself. The art of making fire I contribute. These weapons and this which represents the domesticated plant I also give. (Places gifts at base of throne.)

M. of C.—You might have roamed the forest as you say, but through centuries of toil you discovered the art of making fire, you learned how to fashion crude weapons, and to domesticate animals and plants. Your gifts have aided the world's progress and you will be rewarded for your efforts. (Prehistoric Man bows and goes to rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page:) Summon Egypt.

(Page goes for Egypt. Egypt enters, carrying miniature pyramid, temple, etc.)

M. of C.—You have been summoned here to relate to the Spirit of 1922 the progress and gifts of the first center of civilization.

Egypt.—My land was a fertile country—the gift of the River Nile. It was I who gave to the world

the great pyramids and temples which have never been surpassed by modern architects. I also gave to the world the art of mummifying the dead, the sphinx and the hieroglyphics.

M. of C.—I thank you, Egypt. I am sure mankind will never forget your achievement in massive architecture. Your pyramids and your beautiful temples remain unexcelled.

(Egypt bows and goes to rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page:) Summon Babylon.

(Page goes for Babylon. Babylon enters, carrying scroll (Hammurabi's Code) and calendar.)

M. of C.—You are brought to my court to tell the story of your progress and to display your gifts to civilization.

Babylon.—My people were a great agricultural nation, living in the fertile Tigris-Euphrates Valley. We were on a natural highway between the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean Sea—the East and the West of that day—so came in contact with many peoples. We developed the cuneiform script which thousands of years before Christ was the international language. We had no stone, but we built temples of sun dried brick. Hammurabi wrote the first code of laws. Nebuchadnezzar built the beautiful hanging gardens of Babylon for his Median queen, who was homesick for the mountains and forests. My people divided the day into twenty-four hours with two sets of twelve hours each. Our week had seven days—named as yours are—after the Gods of the sun, moon and planets. Our legends, for example, the deluge story, have been copied in the legends of other peoples. Babylonian systems of weight and measure were used everywhere in the West. The Babylonians were the first people to teach the world construction by means of the arch and the use of drains.

M. of C.—Without doubt, the world's debt to Babylon is great.

(Babylon places gifts on altar and takes place at rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page:) Summon Assyria, that he may tell of his progress in the past ages.

(Page goes for Assyria. Assyria enters, carrying weapons of bronze.)

M. of C.—I have summoned you so that you may relate to the Spirit of 1922 the work and accomplishments of your civilization.

Assyria.—I am Assyria, the great conqueror. My people delighted in war. They plundered and burned towns, and killed women and children. They conquered lands and put them under their control. My people borrowed many of their ideas from their neighbors. The greatest of our cities was Nineveh. Here King Asshurbanipal gathered a great library of more than thirty thousand clay books—all well arranged, classified and catalogued, so that a reader might find what he desired.

M. of C.—You did not accomplish as much as the nations before you did, but nevertheless the Spirit of 1922 must have learned something from your story.

(Assyria leaves weapons at the base of the throne and takes his place at the rear of the stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page) Bring Phoenicia before me.

(Page goes for Phoenicia. Phoenicia comes in dressed as a sailor. He carries a purple cloth richly embroidered and the Phoenician alphabet.)

M. of C.—You see here the Spirit of 1922. Come show what you have given the world's civilization.

Phoenicia.—My people lived in a land bordering the sea. The tiny, narrow strip on which we established our country was so small that as the people increased in number they were obliged to betake themselves to the sea. This was the reason why my people became sailors. We traded our Tyrian purple and lumber for grain and other products which we could not produce in our own country. We had many trading posts, but our most important colony was Carthage, on the northern coast of Africa. We carried the alphabet to all the ancient peoples.

M. of C.—The world will never forget your Tyrian purple and remains indebted to you for the first alphabet.

(Phoenicia puts gifts at base of throne, and after bowing, takes place at rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page:) Bring forth the Hebrew.

(Page goes for Hebrew. Hebrew enters, carrying the Bible. He bows to Mother of Civilization.)

M. of C.—I welcome you to my court and bid you tell the Spirit of 1922 of your ancient life and the accomplishments of your nation.

Hebrew.—My people were wandering shepherds who finally settled down under the rule of Saul, David and Solomon. It was in the day of David that a large number of hymns of praise—The Psalms—were collected. Under Solomon the wisdom of the age was gathered in the Proverbs. As a nation we were the first people to establish a monotheistic faith—the belief in one God.

M. of C.—Your nation, though small, gave the world a most priceless gift—religion.

(Hebrew leaves Bible at base of throne, bows and goes to rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page:) Summon Persia.

(Page goes for Persia. Persia enters, carrying weapons.)

M. of C.—(To Persia:) You have been requested to come before me that you may reveal your past to the Spirit of 1922.

Persia.—My people were given to bribery and hard drinking, and were fond of luxury. They were cruel and warlike. In ancient times Persia was mistress of all western Asia. She attempted to annex Greece, but failed. She was not an inventive country and, therefore, did not have many original ideas.

M. of C.—(To Persia:) Although you did not give many gifts to civilization, no nation has been more ready to adopt foreign customs.

(Persia bows and takes place at rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page:) I await Greece.

(Page goes for Greece. Enter Greek Chorus.)

M. of C.—I have brought you forth that you may unfold your past to the Spirit of 1922.

Greek Chorus.—(To the Tune of Spain.)

Greece is the la-and of science.
 Her men were noted afar,
 When captured, her maids served with silence
 Tables of many afar.
 She spread her knowledge through many lands,
 Our science descended from hers.
 Her men lived apart but they formed in clans.
 She had culture to spare.

Chorus:

Learning—teaching.
 That was her object high.
 Learning more how the earth is made,
 Learning more of the grassy glade,
 Learning—teaching.
 She learned much when free
 And taught it all to the Romans tall
 In fair old Ital-ly.

Greece is the land for the athlete
 Her men trained far and wide,
 The Spartans had plain food to eat
 In order to keep their stride.
 She had the first Olympic games,
 Where many onlookers came
 From every direction the people poured in
 To see their favorite athletes win.

Chorus:

Boxing—running.
 They developed their bodies well.
 The Greeks ran races to see who beat,
 The men performed many a noble feat,
 Boxing—running.
 They wrestled hard and long,
 And the honest pride in his laurels won
 Was felt by the victor strong.

On Mount Olympus all the gods lived
 High above all common men.
 Zeus was the king of the Greek Gods,
 And higher than any of them.
 He it was who caused all the wars,
 Hermes did all of his chores,
 Cupid, the love God, shot arrows swift,
 Into the hearts of the youths.

Chorus:

Feasting—drinking.
 Ambrosia and nectar sweet,
 Brought by Hebe, the graceful one,
 From the hills beneath the sun.
 Feasting—drinking.
 They did this that they might give
 Thanks unto the immortal Gods
 That they could rightly live.

Greek Art.—(With small statue.) We were the first to teach the world to appreciate art. Our art has been model for all modern sculptors and architects. Every one of your cities has some library or church or public building which is designed after our Greek models. (Presents statue.)

Greek Literature.—Our country not only excelled in art and architecture, but also in literature. Every-

one has heard of the "Iliad" and "Odyssey" those wonderful epics written by our blind poet Homer. Our myths have been read by many nations and the wisdom of Plato and Socrates has been a source of learning to the world. (Presents literature.)

Greek Democracy.—Our country was the first to have a real democracy. This democracy was in Athens and reached its greatest height under Pericles. Greece has given to you the idea of a confederacy or league—a union of self-governing states and on a smaller scale the conception of citizenship.

M. of C.—The Olympic Games that are now held in Europe are a revival of the original Greek contests. Many modern athletic sports—track meets and field events had their origin in Greece. From their example of physical fitness and perfection many generations have profited. (To Greek girls) Your gifts to the world in art, literature, science and democracy are indeed great and some day you shall be rewarded for what you have done.

(Greek girls bow and take place at rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Page:) Summon Rome.

(Rome enters, carrying a scroll and scales.)

M. of C.—I have bid you come before me that you may relate, to the Spirit of 1922, your country's progress in ancient days.

Roman.—Rome was in a small country but well located. Her people were poor but hardy and loyal citizens. It was because of this loyalty that Rome became Mistress of the Mediterranean world. This scroll represents the legal system which Rome gave to the world, and this symbolizes the justice which she meted out to her people. She also gave many other ideas in the field of Government.

M. of C.—The people of the present ages are greatly indebted to your country for these accomplishments in law and government.

(Rome puts gifts at base of throne, bows and goes to rear of stage.)

M. of C.—(To Spirit of 1922:) Many things that the people of today use and consider as mere trifles took the ancient people a long while to accomplish. Some of these ancient peoples spent countless generations inventing and trying to improve these gifts you have seen presented. (She looks down at gifts.)

S. of 1922.—I have witnessed a vivid picture of these civilizations and their gifts to the world. I am well pleased and I feel that I have been taught something I shall never forget. (Goes toward M. of C.) Mother of Civilization, I want to thank you for this knowledge of the past ages. Through your summoning of the past civilizations I have realized the story of man's progress and my debt to the ancient nations as I have never seen them before. Some day I shall reward you by placing the gifts of 1922 at your feet.

M. of C.—I am only too glad to do this for you. Come again and I will show you the remaining civilizations.

(Spirit of 1922 bows. Exit.)

(Mother of Civilization remains standing in front of throne, all other characters come to front of stage and sing the song of Ancient Civilizations.)

SONG OF ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS.

(To Tune of Araby.)

We've sung thee songs of Ancient man,
Weird tales of others too,
All of which the modern man
Has often wished he knew.
But we—we say,
Won't pass the lay

To every stranger new.
For all our tales would surely fail
To charm you if you knew,
For all our tales would surely fail
To charm you if you knew.

(Curtain.)

(Note: Music for songs will be found in Laurel
Unison Book—teacher's ed., M. Teresa Armitage.
C. C. Birchard and Co., Boston.)

Citizenship Courses in the Senior High School

BY R. C. BULEY, SPRINGFIELD (ILL.) HIGH SCHOOL

The necessity for education in citizenship in a democracy is obvious. The aims, methods, and measurement of results are not so easily catalogued. America fully recognizes and appreciates the value of scientific knowledge in business, in science, even in education, but in the realm of social affairs we sometimes seem to be unaware of the existence of any body of accumulated expert knowledge. We have accepted the modern in every field except that of human beings in political life. In applied politics, in citizenship, as Dr. Robinson says, we often appear to still border upon the medieval, and whatever progress we make comes by the more or less accidental process of "muddling through."

Certain general aims are common to all citizenship courses in the High School.

I. *The development of consciousness of the common purpose and interdependence of all life in modern civilization, and a feeling of responsibility for it.* The battles of democracy today are not so much for the political rights of the individual,—these we have; but for the assumption of the duties and responsibilities of the individual toward society. Lord Bryce, in his last observation on World Democracies, gives us this rather sober thought:

"As a rule that which the mass of any people desires is not to govern itself, but to be well-governed."

"Popular government has been usually sought and won, and valued not as a good thing in itself, but as a means of getting rid of tangible grievances or securing tangible benefits, and when these objects have been attained, the interest in it has generally tended to decline."

The American tradition of individualism has shown itself in our attitude toward education. Too much emphasis has been placed upon what education will do for the individual and not enough on what the individual will do with his education. Self interest and the interest of society are not the same. The State educates its leaders of social, economic and political life, and unless a strong sense of social obligation accompanies this education, society is the loser. To quote Mr. Count's recent article on "Education as an Individual Right":

"Every time an individual is graduated from high

school, college or university, deficient in this feeling of obligation, a dangerous man is turned loose to prey upon the community. The more talented, the more highly trained he is, the more mischief he will do. Because of the advantages that have been given him, he will know too much to violate the letter of the law, and many of his attacks upon society will be under the guise of virtue. We cannot accept the *laissez faire* notion that unrestrained self-interest unwittingly serves the common good."

II. *Knowledge of the problems in American Democracy.* This necessitates something of the origin and development of our institutions. It means the teaching of clear thinking which will enable us as a people to avoid the extremes of radicalism on the one hand and reaction on the other, of too much individualism or too much paternalism. An acquaintanceship with such topics as the nature of American Industry, Industrial Reform, Socialism, Immigration and its Results, Crime and Correction, Education, Conservation, Credit and Banking, Honesty and Efficiency in Government, Public Opinion and how it is made, Respect for Law, and many others, is a necessary part of the equipment of the American citizen. The value of instruction along these lines lies not so much in the fund of knowledge that our high school boys and girls will carry away, but in the fact that they are aware of these problems, become interested in them and learn to use proper sources of information and how to think and help solve them. Macchiavelli divided all people into three classes: Those who think for themselves, those who think as others think, and those who do not think. It is our business to increase the minority in class one at the expense of classes two and three.

III. *Understanding of the machinery and functions of government.* In our emphasis upon social problems we must not forget that the Constitution still lives, and that Congress, in spite of our opinion of it, still plays an important part in running our country.

The workman must know how to use the tools of his trade, and the mechanic must be acquainted with the machine before he can hope to repair or improve it. The citizen must know his local State, and National government, political parties, and their organization and what they actually do, before he is

prepared to say what they can and should do. He must learn that best progress will be made not by violence, but through the will of the majority and the established machinery of government, and that though the people delegate authority to their representatives, the responsibility still rests upon their shoulders.

IV. *Instruction in the elements of economics.* The greater part of the civilized world is today economically sick. Its recovery depends upon the sound economic constitution of the masses of the people. In America most of our political questions are economic questions, and some of our biggest problems are economic problems. Yet as a nation we are afflicted with what Mr. Vanderlip calls "economic illiteracy." In no way can the high school make a better return to the State than by giving to its citizens the essentials of economics. This return is not to be measured primarily in easily discernible quantitative terms of dollars and cents due to increased usefulness in the business or industrial world. It will be measured by more difficult qualitative standards. It will be evidenced by change in attitude toward classes of people and change in basis of judgment of their value. We will not regard the size of the fortune so much as where it came from, whether it was the result of actual increase in the world's wealth, or taken from someone else. We will learn that to produce, man must exploit nature, not his fellow man. It will result in increased thrift, and appreciation of the basic needs of life. It will lead to further thought and action on basic problems such as why, with the great natural resources of our land, with unold labor power, we should ever have unemployment, slums, poverty and crime.

V. *The raising and emphasizing of the ethics and ideals of citizenship,* and the development of leadership. Peculiar as it may seem, men and women differentiate between the standards which govern them as private persons and as representatives of business, or in office, as representatives of the people. John Jones, who as father and host would be everlastingly disgraced were he to cheat to the extent of a dime, can as contractor cut an eighth of an inch off specifications and cheat his county of thousands, or as profiteer in war or peace charge far beyond what he knows to be a fair price. His word or sign of hand will be good for millions on the stock exchange, while he may be freezing out his neighbors and sending them to financial ruin. He will not steal a newspaper off the stand, but may take and consume for private ends vast resources belonging to his country. Roger Babson says that the greatest single need of American business today is more religion. So in training for citizenship we must make clear that there can be but one system of ethics or morals, and that the business of being a citizen involves more than the mere fact of keeping out of jail. It means training in character and in leadership.

Our city and our State are not free of examples of petty graft and what not. Any civics class will bring to light more examples of political immorality than one should meet in a lifetime, but only once in four years have I found one boy who believed that

there were more crooks than honest people in his community. The rest agreed that it was an illusion due to the fact that the dishonest were more energetic and circulated faster than the lazier, more disinterested, honest majority.

Due to the addition of this, that, and the other apparently necessary subject, the curriculum in the modern high school is so crowded that courses in citizenship have had to fight for elbow room. Many of our high schools require only a half year of United States Civics, and some not even that. Yet it seems that of all the courses which should be taught all the students, those in the English language and in training in citizenship can least afford to be neglected. Even in the high school with its separate curricula for the college preparatory, the commercial, the vocational and the general student, it is possible to give practically every student at least two years of direct citizenship courses. This will be all the more easily accomplished when all the colleges and universities, which seldom require citizenship courses of their own graduates, accept Community Civics credits for college entrance.

For citizenship courses in the high school I shall confine my discussion to five.

I. COMMUNITY CIVICS

Whether this course would better be taught in the eighth or ninth year, with schools under the 8-4 plan, is undecided. There are good arguments on both sides. At any rate, it is in many high schools with the four year plan. It should, if possible, be required of all students. Whether in rural or urban schools, this course should be built around the community. Certain topics will be common, while others will vary with the locality, and from term to term. The main objects of the course are to develop:

1. *Civic Habits*—Habits of orderliness and cleanliness in public places, of individual responsibility for public property, of taste in public places, and of observation.

2. *Civic Knowledge*—The pupil should know the industries of his locality, its government as it affects his daily life, the public and semi-public agencies and their work.

3. *Idea of Civic Service*—Civic knowledge must be backed by right desires. To be effective in constructive and corrective work the citizens must know not only the proper agencies to use, but be willing to assist in emergencies, and be on the job all the time. He should learn respect for law and order, and be willing to conform to the will of the majority as expressed in laws.

4. *Personal and Public Health*—Civics instruction reaches the home more frequently through health instruction than by any other means. The method is largely laboratory in nature. After brief introduction and study of topics the class proceeds to field trips and first hand information. Note books are kept, pictures, maps, diagrams, and charts posted, oral and written reports made. The pupil serves on various committees and reports to the class.

Successful Community Civics instruction demands coöperation with various civic agencies and clubs. It needs publicity. The interest of the Chamber of Commerce, Kiwanis, Rotarian, Lions, and Optimist Clubs, and the newspapers and industries of the community must be secured. By means of prize essays on community affairs and contributions by junior journalists, much interest may be aroused. For several weeks before Christmas one of our papers ran a feature entitled "Springfield Christmas Tree." The gifts were suggested in brief essays by Community Civics students, and consisted of everything from a comprehensive city planning scheme to details of city administration. After the first few days it was hard to decide who was doing the most contributing, the junior citizens or their parents and elders.

Community Civics may be coördinated to mutual advantage with courses in English composition and reading. Good instruction requires abundance of chart making and blue printing facilities, magazines, newspapers, filing cases, bulletin boards, lantern slides, and above all instructors who are interested in the subject, in boys and girls, and who are ever ready to be out in the community gathering information, material and ideas. We now have a number of good texts in Community Civics, and organizing such a course is not the task it was a few years ago.

II. INDUSTRIAL HISTORY

This course, properly handled, is an important course in citizenship. When required of commercial and vocational students it performs a triple function, and reaches more students than any course excepting community civics. Most of these are students who never get advanced courses in civics or economics.

In tracing the development of commerce and industry from ancient through medieval to modern times in his own country, the pupil becomes aware of the broadening of government functions, and their importance to the individual. In the study of transportation, protection against fraud, protective legislation such as workmen's compensation, child welfare, and sanitation laws, the pupil gets an idea of the relation of government and the individual. In the study of the development of modern industry he gets a view of the labor question from various sides. He learns that capital shares the losses as well as the profits,—of the risks to be borne. He sees the usefulness of the immigrant, develops a respect for the skilled worker, and finds that from the standpoint of general welfare, cutting down of production by the individual is not a good thing.

There is no course in social science in which the pupil takes more interest. And this interest carries beyond the classroom. In Springfield, in the middle of highly organized mine territory, we have almost daily evidence of this. Boys whose fathers rank high as business agents of labor unions come to class loaded to the limit with one side of the labor question. In class they refuse to see any other. After a day or two they come around asking for material on the other side. A later investigation reveals an argument between son and dad. Dad is not necessarily con-

verted, but the next generation gains a point by broader knowledge.

The girls, too, have their field. They are as interested in the development of household machinery since their great grandmother's day, as are the boys in agricultural and manufacturing machinery. Their class and text work is amplified by coöperation with school cafeteria, domestic science department and business houses of the city. Girls living in homes which contain not one household labor-saving device, write papers thoroughly illustrated with advertisement clippings, and with clear statement of the additional responsibilities and duties which women can perform when household drudgery is reduced to a minimum.

Unfortunately there is no text which is adequate for a year's course in Industrial History. The course must be taught largely from syllabus, and it is almost necessary to have four or five books available at all times. Among the most useful are: Osgood, "History of Industry"; Thompson, "Social and Industrial History of the United States"; Day, "History of Commerce"; Herrick, "History of Commerce and Industry"; Bogart and Thompson, "Readings in Economic History of the United States." A number of readable reference books suitable to the tenth or eleventh year student must be available.

III. ADVANCED CIVICS

This course, together with United States history, should be required of all students, preferably in the last year of High School. It is primarily a course in government and politics, although various related social problems will be included as far as the ingenuity of the instructor and time and materials will permit. It is a much broader and more advanced course than Elementary Civics. But again the text, though not to be dispensed with, is but a minor part of the work. Many books are needed for collateral reading, some of them on special subjects. A collection of civic material of all sorts must be built up including separately bound magazine articles, pamphlets of the National Municipal League, of the Local, State and National Government, magazines such as *The American City*, *National Municipal Review*, *Searchlight on Congress*, etc. Such a collection, once started, grows by class contributions. Magazine files and guides are necessary for first class work.

Courses in Civics, as in science and manual arts, work best with a long period. Part of the period may be used for discussion or quiz, or reports, and the rest for study where the material is, or again recitation may be dispensed with and the whole time be used for directed study. Laboratory note books, and oral and written reports are among the usual requirements.

If such a course has any one predominating motive it should be to create an interest in public affairs, develop habits and good judgment in the reading of newspapers, magazines and books, and a feeling of responsibility of the citizen for all government.

IV. ECONOMICS

This is perhaps the hardest of all social science

courses to handle in the high school. The old name of the "dismal science" was possibly meant to apply to the methods of teaching it rather than the study itself. Not that we can sugar coat a hard study and make it compete with the motion pictures for popularity. There is no royal road to economics, and no substitute for work. The subject can, however, be enlivened and interest secured in many ways. A certain amount of time must be spent pounding in the laws and definitions. At the same time the student can be made aware of the wide application of economics, its necessity in understanding not only the problems of industry and business, but the politics and news of the day. Many boys and girls become interested in the study from this phase, then see the necessity of the less interesting but nevertheless vital laws and facts. Among the magazines and materials useful in the economic classroom are *Forbes*, *Economic World*, *American Industries*, *Marketing*, *The Nation's Business*, *Lefax*—loose filing leaflets, and *Babson Financial Service*. The financial reviews of the standard magazines, market and financial pages of the newspapers, publications of banks, investment houses, sales and advertising agencies, are all valuable in making high school economics live and useful.

V. SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Elements of Sociology or—Problems of Democracy—whatever one wishes to call this newest of our high school citizenship courses, is not so commonly taught. There are some excellent new texts for such a course. As an additional elective in large schools or as a substitute combination course for civics and economics in the smaller high school, it is valuable. It is doubtful, however, whether it can displace courses giving the necessary foundations of government and economics.

As for methods and technique in instruction in citizenship—the possibilities are wide and varied. The tendency is toward more laboratory work. The instructor is the guide and general—the work is to be done by the students. Yet discussion and oral presentation by students is important. It adds interest, and ability along this line is in itself a valuable asset. Of course, the quiz is necessary now and then, and even brief disguised lectures have their place.

Citizenship training in the high school involves more than the mere presentation of a certain number of courses. Student government, athletics, class organizations, literary societies, in fact, every student activity offers opportunities for work along this line. In no way does the student actually show possession of desirable traits until he uses them. His attitude is sometimes quite different influenced by some responsibility from what it was before. Boys with no more than the average boy's careflessness about public property can become mighty forceful and positive advocates of law and order when their athletic equipment or the reputation of their teams is damaged by their friends or others. There seems to be a tradition on athletic teams that taking the enemies' property is not stealing. Eligibility rules, often regarded as a

necessary evil, can become the pride of teams and student management. Not among the least factors in training in citizenship is the coach.

Civics classes should work together with student government in conduct of all elections. Methods of voting and electioneering can be tried out. An excellent opportunity is presented for development of judgment of candidates and selection of the best for the job. High school boys and girls, like their elders, frequently vote for the popular candidate, or the bold, bad candidate, simply because he gets there first, or has a better machine organized. The larger the school, as in the case of the city, the more likely is this to occur. I remember an election for staff of the school year book,—some of the most important and sought-after positions open to seniors. The election took place just after the civics classes had finished study of election machinery and party organization. A group of sons of Erin held a caucus in Blank's pool room and fixed up their slate. Simultaneously the next day, and apparently with no permission from advisors or office, printed pamphlets and petitions appeared in each home room. Machine workers were at work, each responsible for a row of voters. Many voters, like sheep at the polls, signed simply because it was shoved before them, though some of the names were notorious for want of honorable school or scholastic records. The result was that so many names were signed to the nominating petition, that the more stable, but less politic opposition could hardly get nominated, to say nothing of carrying the election. There is no doubt that practical politics comes easier than good judgment and interest on the part of the mass of citizens.

A Civics Club run by civics students permits programs and activities beyond classroom possibilities. Papers, reports on investigations, recommendations to student council, and principal, furnish direct preparation for useful life in the community.

Above all, student government, slowly and soundly built up, gives to the junior citizen field for exercising qualities of leadership, and constructive community endeavor. I believe the hardest thing for boys and girls to learn is the power of proper public opinion, how to help create it, and to accept responsibility in their community, the school. When we have made some progress along this line, our work in citizenship has been worth while.

Wm. Renwick Riddell's essay "A Renaissance Myth" (*Canadian Magazine* for March) is an interesting, though brief, study of Girolamo Fracastoro of Verona and of one of her Latin poets.

Students of Economic History will find much of interest in Nalinaksha Sanyal's "Measurement of Changes in the Cost of Living in Bengal," in the February *Calcutta Review*. The same magazine has a most interesting account of "Ancient South Indian Dravidian Civilization," by T. R. Rangaswami Ayyangar.

The Social Sciences in Junior and Senior High Schools

BY WILLIS RICHARDSON, HIGH SCHOOL, LOGANSPOUT, IND

The Junior High School has been almost universally accepted in name at least, but in many places the real purpose for which it was designed, has not yet been attained. To destroy the break which too often occurs at the end of the eighth grade and to eliminate the cause of so many students stopping school at about that time, is a problem which must be solved. In fact, the success of our educational system and indeed of our principles of government depends on this solution. The Junior High School, if organized along the lines intended by its originators will go a long way toward solving this problem. However, the mere adoption of such a system will succeed but very little better than the old 8-4 plan unless other methods are adopted to further the same cause.

Even with the adoption of a Junior High School there is still danger of having a definite break between it and the Senior High School. There are several methods that have been tried in various places in an effort to overcome this difficulty, all of which have both faults and merits, but the one method which will have certain definite elements of success in it under almost any of these methods, is the correlation of the Junior and Senior High School subjects. This correlation is not new, but it has been talked of in general terms much more than it has been tried in specific cases.

The department which probably needs the most careful correlation is that of the Social Sciences. This department can be made almost continuous from the beginning of the Junior High to the close of the Senior High School. In smaller systems, where there are but one or two teachers in each department, it is an easy matter for the Superintendent or the Principals of the Junior and Senior High Schools to supervise this work themselves. In larger systems where there are several teachers in each department and where the work of the Principals and Superintendents is consequently much heavier, it is practically impossible for them to do this. Under these conditions it becomes necessary to adopt a plan whereby department heads are appointed to take over the organization of the work in the various subjects throughout the entire secondary field. These department heads must be persons with a thorough knowledge of the subject matter of their work, and in addition must have enough general educational knowledge to keep the entire curriculum balanced. Under some conditions it is advisable to organize thoroughly the entire secondary division under the general supervision of one expert, very much the same as the primary schools in most cities are under the supervision of one person.

That, however, is an administrative question and cannot be discussed along with a teaching problem. It is the organization of the Department of the Social Sciences and some of the teaching problems connected with it that is to be discussed here.

For the correlation of the Social Sciences throughout the secondary division, the following general plan is submitted:

Grade VII, first and second semesters, and grade VIII, first semester, American History, Geography, and Government.

Grade VIII, second semester, "Broadening and Finding" courses.

Grade IX, first and second semesters, general Social Sciences, including Civics and Occupations.

Grade X, both semesters, European History, elective.

Grade XI, both semesters, American History.

Grade XII, both semesters, Problems of American Democracy (Sociology, Economics, Civics, etc.)—elective.

AMERICAN HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND GOVERNMENT

Three semesters should be allotted to this course and the three divisions should be handled together but in such a manner that the student will have a definite knowledge of each. It should always be kept in mind by the teacher that a certain percentage of the students always drop out of school at the end of every semester. This course will require skillful teaching and the possibility of added library equipment, but the advantage gained in having this early history, government, and geography closely related in the experiences of the students will easily surpass this added difficulty.

BROADENING AND FINDING COURSES

The second semester of the eighth year should be devoted to "Broadening and Finding" courses in the field of Social Sciences. As the name indicates, these courses should be designed strictly to help the student locate himself and to help him decide what field he wishes to take up when it comes time for him to make his elections in the later years of his high school course. There should be at least two of these courses running at one time and changing in the middle of the semester, making four distinct courses in all.

GENERAL SOCIAL SCIENCE

This course should include all that is generally included in the two courses of Community Civics and Occupations, and also elementary social, economic, and political problems. Great care should be used in selecting text material for this course. A skillful teacher is also needed for this and it is advisable to handle the subject of Occupations in definite relation to the general subject of community progress as expressed in the part dealing with Civics.

Individual project work by the students and general surveys of local conditions either rural or urban can very profitably be introduced into the teaching of this entire course.

If it is impossible to arrange the broadening and finding courses, the general Social Science course should run through three semesters, that is the second

semester of the eighth year and first and second semesters of the ninth. However, one semester may be left open to be filled with some other part of the curriculum.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

The first nine weeks of this course should be devoted to giving a background to modern European history. This general survey should include sketches of Oriental, Greek, and Roman history with emphasis placed on the relation of those periods to modern history, and to the definite characteristics of civilization obtained from those early peoples. This part should carry the information to the end of the religious wars (1648). The remainder of the semester (nine weeks) should be given to the consideration of history up to 1815. The entire second semester should be devoted to European history since 1815.

In all this course, commercial relations, growth of democratic spirit, and the political relations which led to international misunderstandings must be kept in mind and presented to the students in as clear a manner as possible.

AMERICAN HISTORY

This course is to run through both semesters of the eleventh grade and is to show especially the economic, social and political events which influenced American progress, and the political and commercial relations with the rest of the world; it is to be the basis of the citizenship training of the student.

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

One semester courses should be offered to students of the twelfth grade in sociology, civics, economics, or something else of similar content. It might be advisable to combine the outstanding features of these courses, but to let the subject matter of the title of the course be the main object. That is, in case of offering a course in sociology to center attention on that course but to combine the features of economics and political events with it.

ELECTIVE WORK

Courses in special fields of history should be offered so that eleventh and twelfth grade students wishing to elect such a course could be accommodated. This would also take care of those students who are able to carry additional work.

OBJECT OF SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSES

The one chief object throughout the entire Social Science Department must be to teach good citizenship. The duties, privileges, and advantages of democracy must always be kept in mind by both the teacher and the student. Each course should be as much a finished part as possible, so that the students who are compelled to stop school from time to time will have as much advantage as possible of this training directed toward good citizenship.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In both the Junior and Senior High Schools, there should be set up a definite schedule by which each teacher may work, but which will not interfere with teaching individuality. The department head or supervisor should keep in close touch with the teachers and all should coöperate in every possible way.

In schools where there is a limited amount of equip-

ment and supplies, it is very advisable to group the recitation rooms so that supplies may be used in more than one room without unnecessary confusion.

Very careful attention should be given to the class standing of students, and efforts made to keep all the students in the courses the year they are supposed to take them, thus doing away with mixed classes and added grading difficulties. Students who show that they do not have the ability to handle the courses should be excused and placed in something else.

The object of a course of this sort is to make a continuous department throughout the entire secondary division of the schools, arranged so that the students will be benefited as much as possible and so that each course creates a desire on the part of the student for the next course. If such results are gained, then, a long step has been taken toward the ideal which the Department of the Social Sciences must keep for its goal.

News of Associations

ANNOUNCEMENT OF MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will hold its annual meeting this year at the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, on May 4 and 5. An unusually interesting program has been planned by the officers of the Association, assisted by a local committee consisting of Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, of Lincoln School; Professor Henry Johnson, of Teachers College; Professor Carlton J. H. Hayes, Miss Ruth Hardy, of Brooklyn, and Miss Florence Stryker, of Montclair, New Jersey. The opening meeting will be held at 4.00 o'clock, Friday afternoon, and addresses of welcome will be delivered by Dean James E. Russell and Dr. Otis W. Caldwell. The topic chosen for discussion is "Standard Tests in History," and papers will be read by Miss Ruth E. Hardy, Mr. Fayette R. Moyer, Mr. Earle Rugg and Professor Arthur I. Gates. After a dinner given in the Lincoln School dining room, there will be two addresses, "The World Community," by the President of the Association, and "Nationalism," by Professor Hayes.

The main session will be on Saturday morning at ten. The subject dealt with on this occasion will be "International Relations in History, Civics and Geography," and those on the program are Dr. Stephen P. Duggan, Professor J. Russell Smith, Miss Jessie C. Evans and Miss Louise I. Capen. After a business meeting, members and speakers of the association will attend a luncheon tendered them by Teachers College.

ANNOUNCEMENT TO THE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES:

Our organization has now passed the formative period. It has members in all of the states, Canada, and the insular possessions. It has been endorsed by the representatives of the national associations of

historians, economists, political scientists, sociologists, and geographers, through a commission appointed to observe its methods and program. The time has now come for it to show what the teachers in our field can do through a coöperative effort.

The Commonwealth Fund has provided a grant to cover a study of the experiments in teaching the social studies by Professor J. M. Gambrill, of Teachers College, which is to be completed by October 1 of this year. This grant is strictly limited, however, to this purpose. It provides no financial support for the regular work of the National Council. The current expenses must be met from the annual dues of fifty cents or one dollar per member and the additional sums added by Sustaining Members.

It is important for the membership to be increased for two purposes: first, to make it financially possible for the work to be pushed forward more energetically; and, second, to secure a record of all the capable teachers in our subject in order that their efforts may be more completely coordinated. We should soon have 5,000 members; and we can have that number in the near future if all of the members will work as energetically as some are now working.

Three opportunities for securing new members are now before us:

1. In many of the states *teachers' institutes and conventions* will be held in the near future. If you will notify the secretary of your purpose to attend such gatherings we will send to you a package of leaflets, explaining the purpose and organization of the National Council, and carrying an application blank for membership. It is important to see that the blank is filled out and mailed promptly. Our campaign will be greatly aided if we secure discussion of the social studies at these gatherings, or at least official announcement of the progress of the National Council.

2. Steps are being taken to arrange conferences on the social studies at all of the *leading summer schools* this year. Such conferences were held last year at more than a score of the university summer schools, and the reports from these leave no doubt of their usefulness. If you are going to a summer school write to the secretary so that he may send you some leaflets and so that he may let you know what plans are on foot for securing discussion of the social studies there. It will be possible at the summer school conferences to interest not only teachers, but principals and other administrative officers as well. A number of the latter have already joined the organization.

3. While the *National Education Association* is meeting in Oakland, California, early in July of this year, several programs on the social studies will be arranged by the National Council. A committee is already at work and the members on the Pacific Coast are enthusiastic about the prospect. If you are traveling to California this year be sure to let the secretary know and call for some membership blanks in order that you may be able to preach the cause while you are traveling.

Some of the states are already engaged in setting up branches or *state organizations of the National*

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Council. Our work would be greatly simplified and stimulated if the teachers in all of the states would do likewise. We cannot do our best work in isolation. While it is true that in some of the thinly settled states communication is slow and difficult, it is still possible in all of them for teachers gradually to develop a simple *committee on correspondence* or state group with which the secretary will be able to correspond in taking care of our common interests.

Will you not *make a resolution now* to do two things for the organization:

1. Secure at least two new members in the near future;

2. Take some steps toward securing an organization of the teachers of social studies in your state? Where there is already a state association of history teachers this is almost certain to welcome coöperation with the National Council if members of it will bring the matter up.

Will you help now, while your help is most needed?

EDGAR DAWSON,
Secretary of the National Council,
Hunter College, 671 Park Avenue,
New York City.

SAN FRANCISCO MEETING OF NATIONAL COUNCIL.

The National Council for the Social Studies will hold two sessions during the annual convention of the National Education Association in Oakland and San Francisco. One will deal with the basis on which the program in Social Studies should be reorganized; the other will discuss the Twenty-second Yearbook

of the National Society for the Study of Education. Among the speakers expected are: Professor J. M. Gambrill, of Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, Director of Social Studies in Pennsylvania; Superintendent Will C. Wood, of California; Dr. Harold O. Rugg, of Lincoln School; Professor E. S. Bogardus; Superintendent H. B. Wilson, of Berkeley; Professor J. J. Van Nostrand, of the University of California.

The officers of the National Council are: William H. Hathaway, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, President; Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York, Secretary.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

The sixteenth annual meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association was held in Oklahoma City, March 29-31. The following program was presented:

PROGRAM

Thursday, March 29, at 10 A. M.

Solon J. Buck, President of the Association, Presiding.

The Louisiana-Texas Frontier During the Aaron Burr Conspiracy—Isaac J. Cox, Northwestern University.

Notes on the Colonization of Texas—Eugene C. Baker, University of Texas.

A Filibustering Expedition of 1836—Grace L. Nute, Minnesota Historical Society.

The St. Louis Legion and the Mexican War—E. M. Violette, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri.

The Agricultural Development of Colorado Territory, 1858-1865—J. L. Kingsbury, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri.

Thursday at 2.30 P. M.

William E. Connelley, Kansas State Historical Society, Presiding.

Some Aspects of the Santa Fe Trail, 1848-1880—Ralph P. Bieber, Washington University.

The English Abolition Movement and the Annexation of Texas—Harriet Smither, University of Texas.

Southern Railroads, 1850-1860—R. S. Cotterill, University of Louisville.

The Winning of Kansas, 1854-1858—Cornelius J. Brosnan, University of Idaho.

Voluntary Military Organizations Just Previous to the Civil War—Theo. G. Gronert, University of Arkansas.

Thursday at 6.30 P. M.

Banquet tendered by the Oklahoma Historical Society to the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

Welcoming addresses by Jasper Sipes, President of the Oklahoma Historical Society, and the Honorable J. C. Walton, Governor of Oklahoma.

Thursday at 8.00 P. M.

Jasper Sipes, Oklahoma Historical Society, Presiding.

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PHILADELPHIA

Presidential Address—Solon Justus Buck, Minnesota Historical Society.

Thursday at 9.30 P. M.

Reception for members of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association and Invited Guests by the Oklahoma Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution.

Friday, March 30, at 10 A. M.

Session at the University of Oklahoma, Norman.

Roy Gittinger, University of Oklahoma, Presiding.
The Caddoan Indians of Oklahoma and Adjacent States—Joseph B. Thoburn, Oklahoma Historical Society.

Comanche Civilization—Daniel Becker, Lawton, Oklahoma.

The Spirit of Soonerland—E. E. Dale, University of Oklahoma.

The Economic Basis of the Populist Movement in Iowa—H. C. Nixon, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.

The Genesis of the American Steel Navy, 1880-1890—W. I. Brandt, State University of Iowa.

Friday, Noon

Luncheon for Members of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at The Teepee.

Brief Addresses by Stratton D. Brooks, President of the University of Oklahoma, and J. S. Buchanan, Dean of the University of Oklahoma.

Indian Feature Program by the University of Oklahoma Indian Club.

Friday at 1.30 P. M.

Annual Business Meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

Friday at 3.30 P. M.

Session of the Teachers Section.

Carl E. Pray, Michigan State Normal College, Presiding.

Community Civics and the Development of Citizenship—F. V. Abernathy, Okmulgee, Oklahoma.

Latin American History in the High School—Floyd Dawson, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

An Interpretation of Recent American History—James C. Malin, University of Kansas.

Friday at 6.30 P. M.

Ball Room, Huckins Hotel, Oklahoma City.

Dinner to the Members of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association by the Teachers Mutual Association of Oklahoma City. I. W. Baker presiding. Address: "*Early Press of the Southwest*"—Dr. A. C. Scott.

Friday at 8.30 P. M.

The President-Elect of the Association Presiding.

The Relations of Sterling Price with Jefferson Davis—Lucy Simmons, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri.

Kentucky and Missouri in the Confederacy—David Y. Thomas, University of Arkansas.

The Mercenary Factor in the Creation of the Union

Army, 1861-1865—Fred A. Shannon, Iowa Wesleyan College.

Some Questions in the History of Anglo-American Relations, 1830-1865—Thomas P. Martin, University of Louisville.

Saturday, March 31, at 10 A. M.

Session of State and Local Historical Societies.

Jasper Sipes, Oklahoma Historical Society, Presiding.
Developing State Consciousness Through Historical Work—Floyd C. Shoemaker, Missouri State Historical Society.

Publication Activities of a State Historical Society—Benjamin F. Shambaugh, State Historical Society of Iowa.

The State Survey: Methods and Possibilities—Herbert A. Keller, McCormick Agricultural Library.

Discussion—Dallas T. Herndon, Arkansas Historical Commission; John W. Oliver, Indiana Historical Commission.

Saturday, Noon

Subscription Luncheon at State House.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Jan. 24, to Mar. 31, 1923

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Colden, Cadwallader. The history of the five Indian nations of Canada [etc.]; in 2 vols. N. Y.: Allenton Book Co. 264, 387 pp. \$3.00.

Dawes, Charles G. The first year of the budget of the United States. N. Y.: Harper. 436 pp. \$6.00.

Dunaway, Wayland F. History of the James River and Kanawha Company. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 251 pp. \$2.75.

Fynn, A. J. North America in days of discovery. Boston: Badger. 277 pp. (1 p. bibl.). \$2.00.

Hain, Harry H. History of Perry County, Pennsylvania. Harrisburg, Pa.: Hain-Moore Co. 1088 pp.

Halleck, Reuben P. History of our country. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. \$1.60.

Harmon, Daniel W. A journal of voyages and travels in the interior of North America between the 47th and 58th degree of north latitude, [etc.]. N. Y.: Allenton Book Co. 382 pp. \$1.50.

Long, John D. America of yesterday, as reflected in the journal of [author]. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press. \$3.00.

MacKenzie, Alexander. Voyages from Montreal through the continent of North America to the Frozen and

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Mesick, Jane L. The English traveller in America, 1785-1835. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 370 pp. (5½ p. bibl.). \$2.50.
Morris, Harvey. Washington County Giants. (Indiana Hist. Soc. Pubs., Vol. 7, No. 8). Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill. 50c.
Taussig, Frank W. The tariff history of the United States. 7th edition revised. N. Y.: Putnam. 499 pp. \$2.50.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Bury, John B. History of the later Roman Empire, from the death of Theodosius 1st to the death of Justinian. A. D. 395 to A. D. 565; in 2 vols. N. Y.: Macmillan. 471, 494 pp. (16 p. bibl.). \$14.00 set.
Dixon, Roland B. The racial history of man. N. Y.: Scribner. 583 pp. (43½ p. bibl.). \$6.00.
Dougherty, Raymond P. The Skirkutu of Babylonian deities. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 93 pp. \$2.00.
Frank, Tenney. A history of Rome. N. Y.: Holt. 613 pp. (7 p. bibl.). \$4.50.
Giles, A. F. History of Rome. Girard, Kansas: Halde-
man-Julius Co. 120 pp. 10c.
James, Henry R. Our Hellenic heritage; vol. 1, p. 1. The Great Epics; pt. 2. The Struggle with Persia. N. Y.: Macmillan. 408 pp. \$1.50.
Quennell, Marjorie, and Quennell, C. H. B. Everyday life in the new Stone, Bronze and Early Iron Ages. N. Y.: Putnam. 237 pp. \$2.50.
Weigall, Arthur. The life and times of Akhnaton, Pharaoh of Egypt [new and rev. ed.]. N. Y.: Putnam. 255 pp. \$5.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Arnold, B. W., jr. England's progress, 1793-1921. Boston: Badger. 279 pp. \$2.00.
Cross, Cecil M. P. The development of self-government in India, 1858-1914. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 248 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$2.00.

- Guttridge, G. H. The colonial policy of William 3rd in America and the West Indies. N. Y.: Macmillan. 180 pp. \$3.50.
Oman, Charles W. C. The unfortunate Colonel Despard and other studies. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 230 pp. \$3.50.
Teichman, Eric. Travels of a consular officer in Eastern Tibet, together with a history of the relations between China, Tibet, and India. N. Y.: Macmillan. 248 pp. \$10.00.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Bryant, Louise. Mirrors of Moscow. N. Y.: Seltzer. 209 pp. \$2.50.
Calman, Alvin R. Ledru-Rollin and the Second French Republic. N. Y.: Columbia University. 452 pp.
Eversley, John S., and Chirol, Valentine. The Turkish Empire from 1288 to 1914, by first author and from 1914 to 1922 by second author. [rev. edition.] N. Y.: Dodd Mead. 456 pp. \$5.00.
Hayes, Carleton J. H., and Moon, Parker T. Modern history. N. Y.: Macmillan. 890 pp. \$2.40.
Mathews, Shailer. The French Revolution, 1789-1815. [new edition]. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 466 pp. \$2.00.
Plum, H. G., and Benjamin, G. G. Modern and contemporary European civilization. Phila.: Lippincott. 413 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.20.
Simpson, F. A. Louis Napoleon and the recovery of France, 1848-1856. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 396 pp. (13 p. bibl.). \$6.00.
Teleki, Paul. The evolution of Hungary and its place in European history. N. Y.: Macmillan. 312 pp. (66 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
West, Willis M. A short history of Modern peoples; part 2 of World Progress. N. Y.: Allyn & Bacon. 669 pp. \$1.50.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Bertram, Anton, and Luke, Harry C. Report of the commission appointed by the Government of Palestine to inquire into the affairs of the orthodox patriarchate of Jerusalem. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 336 pp. \$5.65.
Clark, Eugene F. War record of Dartmouth College, 1917-1918. Hanover, N. H.: Dartmouth College. 254 pp.
Folks, Homer. The human costs of the war. Phila.: Educ. Dept. of the Municipal Court. 19 pp.
Herzog, Stanley J. The fightin' Yanks [a Stamford boy's story of the World War]. Stamford, Conn.: [Author]. 38 River St. 116 pp.
Holmes, Mary C. Between the lines in Asia Minor. N. Y.: Revell. 224 pp. \$1.50.
Kluck, Alexander von. The march on Paris and the battle of the Marne, 1914. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 175 pp. \$3.50.
Lefebure, Victor. The riddle of the Rhine. N. Y.: Dutton. 281 pp. \$2.00.
Polk County, Minnesota, in the world war. Ada, Minn.: C. E. Wentsel. 200 pp.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- Fiske, Christabel F., editor. Vassar medieval studies, by members of the faculty, of Vassar College. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 493 pp. (12½ bibl.). \$5.00.
Funck-Brentano, Frantz. The Middle Ages. N. Y.: Putnam. 555 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
Thorndyke, Lynn. A history of magic and experimental science during the first 13 centuries of our era; in 2 vols. N. Y.: Macmillan. 835, 1036 pp. \$10.00.

MISCELLANEOUS

- James, Marquis. A history of the American Legion. N. Y.: Wm. Green, 627 W. 43d St. 320 pp. \$2.50.
Monroe, W. S. and Foster, I. O. The status of the social sciences in the high schools of the North Central Association. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 38 pp. 50c.
Webster, Hutton. History of the Far East. Boston: D. C. Heath. 173 pp. (1½ p. bibl.). \$1.40.

BIOGRAPHY

- Bolton, Sarah K. Lives of girls who became famous [rev. edition]. N. Y.: Crowell. 326 pp. \$2.00.

- Miller, James M. The amazing story of Henry Ford [etc.]. Chicago: M. A. Donohue, 701-733 Dearborn St. 448 pp. \$3.00.
- Kohlsaat, H. H. From McKinley to Harding. N. Y.: Scribner. 235 pp. \$3.00.
- Moore, Charles W. Abraham Lincoln, lawyer (Ind. Hist. Soc. Pubs. Vol. 7, No. 8). Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill. 50c.
- Robinson, Luther E. Abraham Lincoln as a man of letters. N. Y.: Putnam. 344 pp. \$2.50.
- Sumner, G. Lynn. Abraham Lincoln, as a man among men. N. Y.: Harper. 31 pp. 75c.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Burns, Allen T. American Americanization. Phila.: Educ. Dept. of the Municipal Court. 35 pp.
- Claghorn, Kate H. The immigrant's day in court. N. Y.: Harper. 546 pp. \$2.50.
- Gallagher, John S. The government of Washington [state]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 72 pp.
- Hadley, Arthur T. Economic problems of democracy. N. Y.: Macmillan. 162 pp. \$1.50.
- Johnson, Wendell F. Toledo's non-partisan movement. Toledo, O.: H. J. Chittenden Co. 72 pp. 35c.
- Long, Joseph R. Government and the people. N. Y.: Scribner. 464 pp. \$1.50.
- Shuler, Marjorie. Party control in politics and government. Brooklyn, N. Y.: Stebbins. 160 pp. \$1.60.
- Willoughby, W. F. The reorganization of the administrative branch of the national government. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 314 pp. \$3.00.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- History: the Study of the Growth of Freedom. John S. Hoyland (*Indian Review*, February).
- Some Outcomes of the Teaching of History. Ralph E. Wager (*School Review*, March).
- The Status of Labor in Ancient Israel. Mayer Sulzberger (*Jewish Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Exposure of Infants in Ancient Rome. H. Bennett (*Classical Journal*, March).
- Suppression of Piracy in the West Indies (continued). Francis B. C. Bradley (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, April).
- Turkey and the Powers. (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The German and Austrian Alliance. Theodor von Sosnosky (*Quarterly Review*, January).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Jeremy Bentham. Graham Wallas (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
- The Times from Delane to Northcliffe. (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Ulster Plantation. A. G. Bradley (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- Education in Nova Scotia before 1811. Patrick W. Thibeau (*Catholic Educational Review*, March, April).
- Saint Xavier's Work in South India. U. B. Nair (*Indian Review*, February).

THE GREAT WAR

- Early Days on the Aisne. H. M. B. Salmon (*Nineteenth Century and After*, April).
- Results of the Artillery Action in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. Maj. Gen. Edward P. McGlachlin (*Field Artillery Journal*, January-February).
- The Attack of Maubeuge by the Germans. Capt. Koeltz (*Coast Artillery Journal*, March). Translated from the *Revue Militaire Generale*, April, 1921).
- Destroyer Experiences during the Great War, IV. Capt. J. K. Taussig (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, March). Operating from the base at Brest.

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- Present Day Tendencies in the Teaching of Social Science in the High School. Roscoe L. Ashlev (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).
- Popularizing State History. Floyd C. Shoemaker (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).

- State and Local History. Clarence H. McClure (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).
- History in State Normal Schools. Walter B. Davison (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).
- German Gifts to America. Albert B. Faust (*Our World*, April).
- Mohegan Indians East and West. George A. Wood (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).
- Celoron de Blainville and French Expansion in the Ohio Valley. George A. Wood (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- What We Owe to the Puritans. Albert B. Hart (*Current History*, April).
- The Brittanic Question and the American Revolution. Robert L. Schuyler (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
- The Bands of the Continental Army. John C. Fitzpatrick (*D. A. R. Magazine*, April).
- Remy's Lost History of Louisiana. Henry P. Dart (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, January).
- Salem Vessels and their Voyages (continued). George G. Putnam (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, April).
- The Fur Trade in Minnesota during the British Regime. Wayne E. Stevens (*Minnesota History Bulletin*, February).
- The Story of the Grand Portage. Solon J. Buck (*Minnesota History Bulletin*, February).
- A Brief History of the United States Marine Corps. Maj.-Gen. John A. Lejeune (*Marine Corps Gazette*, March).
- Marine Corps History, 1807 to 1812. Maj. Edwin N. McClellan (*Marine Corps Gazette*, March).
- George Croghan and the Westward Movement (continued). A. T. Volwiler (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- The Attempt of New Orleans to Meet the Crisis in Her Trade with the West. Erastus P. Puckett (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).
- Old Franklin: a Frontier Town of the Twenties. Jonas Viles (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- The Second Troop Philadelphia City Cavalry (continued). Newman Dorland (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- James Alfred Pearce (continued). Bernard C. Steiner (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, March).
- Wisconsin. William E. Leonard (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- The Yankee and the Teuton in Wisconsin, II. Joseph Schafer (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March). Distinctive traits as farmers.
- Chateaubriand and the Monroe Doctrine. W. P. Cresson (*North American Review*, April).
- The Character and Leadership of Stephen A. Douglas. William O. Lynch (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).
- Kentucky Neutrality in 1861. Wilson P. Shortridge (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- Damaged Souls, V: Benjamin Franklin Butler. Gamaliel Bradford (*Harper's*, April).
- The Reconstruction, its Actual Workings. Carl Holliday (*Methodist Quarterly Review*, April).
- The Grand Army of the Republic and the Wisconsin Department. Hosea W. Rood (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- Grover Cleveland's First Administration as President. George F. Parker (*Saturday Evening Post*, April 7).
- Early American Policy in Korea, 1883-7. Tyler Dennett (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
- Development of Anti-Japanese Agitation in the United States, II. Raymond L. Buell (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
- The Religion of Roosevelt. Oscar S. Straus (*Forum*, February).
- Ohio's German-Language Press in the Campaign of 1920. Carl Wittke (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, extra number).
- Wilsonism. William E. Dodd (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).

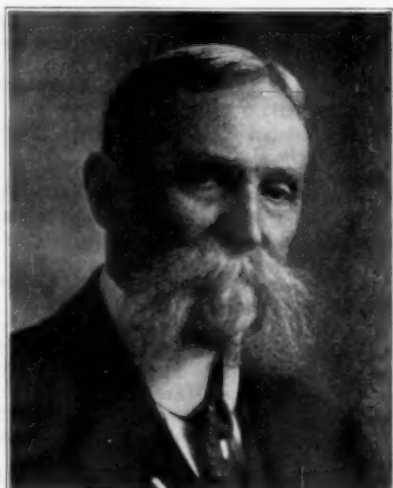
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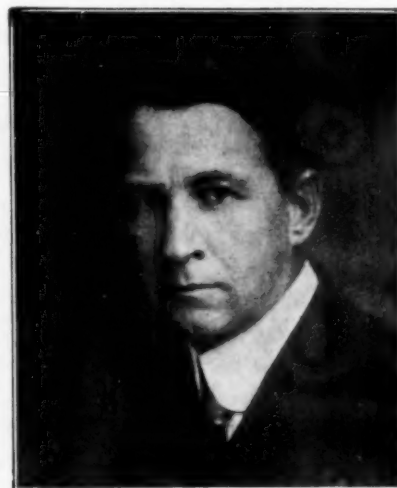
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Albert Bushnell Hart



David Maydole Matteson



Herbert Eugene Bolton

Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph. D., LL. D., of Harvard University, is one of the best known of American Historians. He is best known to students and teachers as the author of "*Essentials of American History*", "*New American History*" and "*School History of the United States*"—text books published by American Book Company, and extensively used in high schools and grades.

A few of the other books that Dr. Hart has written or edited are: "*The American Nation*", 28 volumes; "*Source Readers in American History*", 4 volumes; "*American History Told by Contemporaries*", 4 volumes; "*American Patriots and Statesmen*", 5 volumes; "*Cyclopedia of American Government*", 3 volumes; "*Epoch Maps*", "*America at War*", etc.

David M. Matteson of Cambridge, who has had years of experience as a research historian and who has helped several of our leading writers in the preparation of maps to accompany their books, assisted Dr. Hart in the preparation of the maps.

Herbert Eugene Bolton, Ph. D., Professor of American History, University of California, is widely known for his work in Spanish-American and Western History. While he is a leading authority in the history of the Spanish South-west, the influence of his teaching is even broader than that of his personal writings. His method of presenting American History as the development of the whole continent, instead of the United States alone, is unique in this country. His seminar has become the center of a new, distinctive "school" of American History writing.

Among his writings are: "*The Colonization of North America*" (with T. M. Marshall); "*Athanase de Mazières and the Louisiana-Texas Frontier, 1768-1780*" (2 vol.); "*Texas in the Middle 18th Century*"; "*Spanish Explorations in the Southwest*"; "*The Memoirs of Father Kino*" (2 vol.).

During his eight years' affiliation with the University of Texas he made frequent visits to the archives of Mexico and one extended visit to Spain.

He investigated the history of the native Indian tribes of Texas for the U. S. Bureau of Ethnology.

Four of the Hart-Bolton American History Maps, namely A1, A2, A3, and A6 were edited by him. He is now at work on additional maps to be published at an early date.

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